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The Nation

VOL. LXVIII—NO. 1750.

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The Nation.

A WEEKLY JOURNAL DEVOTED TO
Politics, Literature, Science, and Art.

FOUNDED 1865.

[Entered at the New York City Post-Office as second
class mail-matter.]

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[Publication was begun July 1, 1865, Vol. I comprising
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year of 1898.]

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FIFTY-FOURTH ANNUAL STATEMENT
New York Life Insurance Company,
 Nos. 346 and 348 Broadway, New York City.

JOHN A. McCALL, President.

Balance Sheet, January 1st, 1899.

ASSETS.		LIABILITIES.	
United States, State, City, County and other Bonds (cost value \$115,687.034), market value, Dec. 31, 1898.....	\$121,579,619	Policy Reserve (per certificate of New York Insurance Department) \$175,710,249	
Bonds and Mortgages (777 first liens)	39,002,758	All other Liabilities: Policy Claims, Annuities, Endowments, &c., awaiting presentment for payment.....	2,358,383— \$178,068,632
Real Estate (68 pieces, including twelve office buildings).....	16,539.000	Additional Policy Reserve voluntarily set aside by the Company.....	2,838,626
Deposits in Trust Companies and Banks, at interest.....	8,434,786	Surplus Reserved Funds voluntarily set aside by the Company.....	26,414,234
Loans to Policy-holders on their policies as security (legal value thereof, \$16,000 000).....	9,818,600	Other Funds for all other contingencies	8,623,319— 37,876,179
Loans on Stocks and Bonds (market value \$9,229,702).....	7,390,845		
Stocks of Banks, Trust Companies, &c. (\$4,532.086 cost value), market value, Dec. 31, 1898.....	6,050,831		
Premiums in transit, reserve charged in Liabilities.....	2,280,188		
Quarterly and Semi-Annual Premiums not yet due, reserve charged in Liabilities.....	2,087,274		
Interest and Rents due and accrued....	1,440,487		
Premium Notes on policies in force (legal value of policies, \$2,500,000).....	1,320,423		
TOTAL ASSETS.	\$215,944,811	TOTAL LIABILITIES.	\$215,944,811

CASH INCOME, 1898.		EXPENDITURES, 1898.	
New Premiums.....	\$7,644,715	Paid for Losses, Endowments, and Annuities.....	\$15,390,978
Renewal Premiums.....	27,987,933	Paid for Dividends and Surrender Values	6,128,888
TOTAL PREMIUMS.	\$35,632,648	Commissions (\$3,320,904.33) on New Business of \$152,093,369; Medical Examiners' Fees and Inspection of Risks (\$449,428).....	3,770,332
Interest on:		Home and Branch Office Expenses, Taxes, Advertising, Equipment Account, Telegraph, Postage, Commissions on \$791,927.751 of Old Business and Miscellaneous Expenditures.....	5,208,754
Bonds.....	\$5,740,819	BALANCE—EXCESS OF INCOME OVER EXPENDITURES FOR YEAR.....	14,932,964
Mortgages.....	1,940,937	TOTAL EXPENDITURES.	\$45,431,916
Loans to Policy-holders, secure by reserves on policies	628,638		
Other Securities.....	391,353		
Rents received.....	875,741		
Dividends on Stocks... .	221,780		
TOTAL INTEREST, RENTS, &c.	9,799,268		
TOTAL INCOME.	\$45,431,916		

FIFTY-FOURTH ANNUAL STATEMENT
New York Life Insurance Company.

(CONTINUED.)

INSURANCE ACCOUNT.		COMPARISON FOR SEVEN YEARS.		
ON THE BASIS OF PAID-FOR BUSINESS ONLY.		(1891-1898.)		
	NUMBER OF POLICIES.	AMOUNT.	Dec. 31st, 1891.	Dec. 31st, 1898.
In Force, December 31, 1897..	332,958	\$877,020,925	Assets . . .	\$125,947,290
New Insurance Paid-for, 1898.	73,471	152,093,369	Income . . .	31,854,194
Old Insurances revived and increased, 1898	835	2,129,688	Dividends of Year to Policy-holders	45,431,917
Total Paid-for Business..	407,264	\$1,031,243,982	Total Payments of Year to Policy-holders. . .	1,260,340
DEDUCT TERMINATIONS:				
By Death, Maturity, Surrender, Expiry, &c.....	33,330	87,222,862	Number of Policies in force . . .	12,671,491
Paid-for Business in Force December 31st, 1898....	373,934	\$944,021,120	Insurance in Force, premiums paid, .	21,519,865
Gain in 1898.....	40,976	\$67,000,195		8,848,374
New Applications Declined in 1898	6,142	15,986,836		

Certificate of Superintendent of State of New York Insurance Dept.

ALBANY, January 6, 1899.

I, LOUIS F. PAYN, Superintendent of Insurance of the State of New York, do hereby certify that the NEW YORK LIFE INSURANCE COMPANY, of the City of New York, in the State of New York, is duly authorized to transact the business of Life Insurance in this State.

I FURTHER CERTIFY that, in accordance with the provisions of Section Eighty-four of the insurance law of the State of New York, I have caused the policy obligations of the said Company, outstanding on the 31st day of December, 1898, to be valued as per the Combined Experience Table of Mortality, at four per cent. interest, and I certify the same to be \$175,719.249.

I FURTHER CERTIFY that the admitted assets are

\$215,944,811.

THE GENERAL LIABILITIES \$2,358,383 THE NET POLICY RESERVE, AS CALCULATED BY THIS DEPARTMENT, \$175,710,249, MAKING THE TOTAL LIABILITIES, PER STATE LAWS.

\$178,068,632.

THE ADDITIONAL POLICY RESERVE VOLUNTARILY SET ASIDE BY THE COMPANY

\$2,838,626.

THE SURPLUS RESERVED FUNDS VOLUNTARILY SET ASIDE BY THE COMPANY,

\$26,414,234.

OTHER FUNDS FOR ALL OTHER CONTINGENCIES.

\$8,623,319.

IN WITNESS WHEREOF, I have hereunto subscribed my name and caused my official seal to be affixed at the City of Albany, the day and year first above written.

LOUIS E. PAYN, Superintendent of Insurance.

"No library can be complete without it." BOIES PENROSE,
U. S. Senator from Pennsylvania.

Messages and Papers of the Presidents

EDITED BY THE
Hon. JAMES D. RICHARDSON,
Under the Direction of Congress.



EHISTORY of the United States should form the nucleus of every American citizen's library. With grave questions of public policy to be settled at the ballot-box within the next few years, it will be found necessary to study closer than ever those crises from which the nation has in the past emerged ever triumphant. This history should be as authoritative as possible. Ordinarily we get the story of our country from the point of view of one man, and one whose ideas have never influenced the events of which he writes.

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The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, JANUARY 12, 1899.

The Week.

Senator Hoar's call for light on the treaty may or may not meet with a response from the President, but it is eminently proper. To ask eighty-seven Senators to take three Senators' word for it, and leap into the dark, is neither dignified nor sane. Evidently, the eighty-seven thought so, as, in spite of the protests of Senator and Commissioner Davis, they adopted Mr. Hoar's resolution calling upon the President for his instructions to the Paris Commissioners. If the Senate is to ratify a treaty intelligently, it must know all the steps leading up to its negotiation. In such a case preliminaries are as important as the final contract. Not only what the Commission got, but what they set out to get, what they were instructed to try for, in what respects and for what reasons their demands were increased, if they were increased—all this is essential knowledge for Senators really desirous of passing upon the treaty as Senators should. Senator Hoar is, therefore, standing, not simply for the Senate's rights and dignities, but for common sense and the public good. For more than a year now our great, frank, and people-trusting President has kept the country in the dark. He has not yet given us the correspondence leading up to the Spanish war. He might at least begin by giving the correspondence leading up to the treaty of peace. There is no question of delay or obstruction. Mr. McKinley is going ahead in the Philippines just as if the treaty were already ratified. His proclamation bluntly said that he regarded the signing of the treaty as transferring the Spanish sovereignty over the archipelago to us. This is a tremendous assumption—illegal and unconstitutional. But if he is determined to act as if the treaty were already law, a little deliberation, a little calling for light, on the part of the over-ridden Senate, can do no harm.

For its purpose, a vigorous reminder of the place the American republic occupied in its own estimation and in that of the world only a year ago, Senator Hoar's speech on Monday could hardly be surpassed. It was a fine description of those really "glory-crowned heights" on which we not only picnicked, but lived, for the first century of our existence as a nation; of the period when we had a soul, when we worshipped great principles, and made it our mission, for the first time in the world's history, to exalt the arts of peace and to find satisfaction in domestic happiness, in secu-

rity, equality, and justice. The transformation of the last year has been so astounding that mere contrast was eloquence. Mr. Hoar touched "the mystic chords of memory," too, as effectively as Lincoln. He must have moved the American soul of many a hardened expansionist with his pictures of that old America which did so much to raise the hopes of mankind about their possibilities. Ay de mi! as Carlyle said. Emerson has become a German corporal.

One of the most masterly summings up we have yet seen of our relation to the Philippines is that by Mr. Edmunds of Vermont in the *World of Sunday*. He may be said to complete the list of American men of light and leading who have put themselves on record as opponents of this enterprise. We think we can safely say that there is not a single American who can lay claim to authority on statecraft or political morality, whose name is not to be found among the opponents of the Philippine folly, and there are thousands of smaller men among its advocates who secretly condemn it, but have been driven over to the McKinleyites through fear of "getting left." On the 19th of April, 1775, there occurred a little affair at Lexington, Mass., which so strikingly resembles the situation in the Philippines to-day that it is worth recalling. On that day a body of British troops commanded a small force of Massachusetts militia to lay down its arms for precisely the same reason given to the Filipinos by the revered President McKinley for laying down their arms, namely, that the sovereignty of America was vested in King George, and that the Americans did not know how to govern themselves; that King George knew what was good for them better than they themselves, and, therefore, they must lay down their arms and return to their agricultural pursuits, while the King was engaged, with his cabinet, in drawing up rules and regulations for them. They refused to do so, and then the English commanding officer, whose name was Pitcairn, not Otis, determined to punish them, but not "severely," for their recalcitrancy. He, therefore, killed only eight of the militia and wounded only nine, when he might have killed them all. This remarkable moderation produced no effect, and we know what followed.

The order of December 21, 1898, sent by command of the President to Gen. Otis at Manila, inspires one to ask whether or not there is in the War Department, or in any other department at Washington, an officer, "learned in the law," who thinks and writes as good lawyers should and do. What, for

example, is the meaning in law of "practically effected," as used in the first sentence of that order? What did the draughtsman mean by "conquest" of all the Philippines, as the word was employed therein? Can there be a military "conquest," within the meaning of public law, if there is not an actual military occupation? What sort of a "conquest" is recognized by the law of nations as one "practically effected," as distinct from actually effected? How could the military occupation of Manila, and nothing else, suspend Spanish sovereignty in all the other islands of the archipelago? It could not and did not. The President declared to Gen. Otis that "with" the signature of the treaty, and "as" the result of what had been done at Manila, the Philippine archipelago has been ceded to the United States. But what will happen if the Senate shall not ratify the treaty? The President cannot by himself enlarge our boundaries. Spain has not yet ratified the treaty, any more than has the United States.

And then, too, if there has already been the occupation needed for "conquest," why does an "actual occupation" become "immediately necessary," and a military government instantly "extended" outside of Manila? The answer is that the President has not yet made, in law, a "conquest" of the Philippines. He proclaims that all the municipal laws of the Philippines respecting private rights and crimes will be maintained. If the draughtsman of the order intended exemptions, he should have expressed them. And what is meant by protecting private property "except for cause duly established"? "Duly established" by whom, by what, and where? Which "measure of individual rights and liberties" mentioned in the order "is the heritage of free peoples"? Who knows? What a blessing it would be if Mr. Choate, before going to London, could be in Washington for a few weeks, and practically put knowledge and accuracy into the law-offices of the Administration and its military orders! Or, better still, if he could for six months be the Attorney-General!

We entirely agree with ex-President Cleveland, that if the Filipinos offer any opposition to the landing of our troops on their soil, they must be slaughtered. No more daring and dangerous opposition to sound principles has ever been offered. These Filipinos have been bought by a perfectly fair sale. True, their price has not yet been paid over, but no one doubts the ability and fixed intention of the United States to pay it. They are therefore lawful property, not only under

the law of nations, but under our law. In the case of *Scott vs. Sandford* Chief Justice Taney held that, historically, men of this color had no rights that white men like us were bound to respect. To permit for one moment resistance to such a claim would unsettle the title to all property. No man would feel safe in the ownership of his horse or his cow if property like this, created by a treaty of the most solemn nature, could be set aside by a parcel of half-savages. If they persist in resisting the landing of our troops, we would open on them with our quick-firing guns, which will soon, we warrant, bring them to see the matter in its true light. President McKinley, with that goodness of heart which distinguishes him, has enjoined our troops not to treat them with "severity." We presume he means by this that our soldiers on reaching the shore should make good their landing simply by pushing, in which, owing to their superior stature, he thinks they would get the better of the natives. But is not this a perfectly chimerical idea? We ask any one who has ever landed on conquered soil in the teeth of native opposition, if he thinks a landing can be effected by pushing. No; the true remedy, the most humane for the natives themselves, is what Bismarck called "blood and iron."

It means something when a politician who cherishes an ambition for the Presidency, denounces the expansion policy of the McKinley Administration, and seeks to constitute himself a national leader against the Trusts, and a Republican rival of the Democratic Bryan in his assaults upon the courts. It signifies that one of the shrewdest judges of public sentiment to be found in the Middle West believes that, by the fall of 1900, there may be a reaction against the expansion policy, and an uprising against the Trusts that thrive under Republican rule, which will be strong enough to make its leader the next President. Gov. Pingree of Michigan may be "all off" in this view, but the fact that he holds it and acts upon it is a sign of the times that should not be overlooked by any careful observer of our politics.

One of the earliest blessings of our civilization to be extended to Hawaii is an attempt to harry the Chinese. A clause in the joint resolution annexing the islands provided that "there shall be no further immigration of Chinese into the Hawaiian Islands except upon such conditions as are now or may hereafter be allowed by the laws of the United States." Acting under this, the United States inspector of Chinese in Honolulu caused the arrest of a party of Chinese residents of Hawaii returning from a visit to China. Some of them were men of property, and all had originally come to Hawaii under the treaty with that

country allowing a restricted immigration. Their counsel sued for a writ of habeas corpus before the Hawaiian Supreme Court, and Chief Justice Judd granted it and ordered the discharge of the Chinese. He held that the act of Congress of July 7, 1898, did indeed repeal *ipso facto* all the Hawaiian legislation relating to the Chinese as respects future immigration. But he was resolute in maintaining that the law could not have a retrospective effect; that it could not destroy the validity of permits issued before its date of enactment. The Chief Justice, in fact, paid a high, unless it was a sarcastic, tribute to the humane intentions of the American Congress in its legislation concerning the Chinese. He held, against the arguments of learned counsel, that such an "obvious injustice," such a clear case of "oppression," as would be involved in deporting these Chinese residents could never have been intended by Congress. Mr. Justice Judd will learn more of Congress, in this and other capacities; but it is at least gratifying to know that the power of declaring the law in Hawaii is still in the hands of so humane a man as he, and that he was able to frustrate this particularly mean effort to persecute.

The annual raid upon the merit system was made in the House of Representatives on Friday. While that body was in committee of the whole, a Republican member from Kentucky moved to strike out the appropriation for the expenses of the Civil-Service Commission; Grosvenor of Ohio, Hepburn of Iowa, and other Republicans of some prominence made speeches in favor of this motion; and on a rising vote, with only about a third of the Representatives present, the motion was carried, 67 to 61. Nothing was settled by this, however. Moody of Massachusetts, one of the several earnest defenders of the reform, gave notice that he should demand an aye-and-no vote in the House. It has happened, over and over again, that absurd propositions were carried on a rising vote, when no record could be made of their supporters and opponents, and defeated as soon as the roll was called. This is what has since happened in this case; still, it is discouraging and disreputable that 67 out of 128 Representatives should be willing, even in this irresponsible fashion, to declare themselves in favor of "starving out" the Civil-Service Commission and restoring the spoils system.

The caucus of Republican members of the Pennsylvania Legislature to select a candidate for United States Senator was held at Harrisburg on January 3. There were present 109, as nearly as possible two-thirds of the 164 members of the party. Of these 109, all but 11 voted for Matthew S. Quay, and the leader of

those 11 moved to make the nomination unanimous, so that all 109 can be counted upon to cast their ballots for him in the Legislature. A majority of the Legislature, which is necessary to election, is 128. There are two ways of looking at this result. In one aspect it represents the lowest depth yet touched in American politics. Quay is, on the whole, the most disreputable man occupying high position in the United States. He has been open and cynical in his contempt for public morality. He has reduced corruption in politics to a fine art. He has made bargain and sale the rule of action in government. He has openly admitted that he speculated in stocks affected by his attitude as Senator at a time when he was voting upon a tariff bill which involved them. Finally, he was exposed as having tampered with State funds which he had caused to be deposited by a State Treasurer whom he owned in a bank which he controlled; he was indicted for the crime; he sought to evade a trial by raising technical objections to a prompt hearing; and he may very probably be sentenced to the penitentiary for a series of years before the term of the next Senator begins. Yet two-thirds of the Republicans in the Legislature entered a caucus and bound themselves to support him, and he needs but 19 more votes to secure an election. On the other hand, the fact that one-third of the Republican members of the Legislature resisted all these influences, is the most encouraging incident in Pennsylvania politics for many years.

Quay must stand trial in the Philadelphia court. The Supreme Court has refused to interfere in the case. This is a serious blow to the boss. It would seem as though it must prove fatal. The voting for United States Senator in the Legislature will begin next Tuesday, and it seems hardly possible that a man under trial on an indictment which may land him in the penitentiary can force his election to the Senate.

The quiet way in which the politicians at Albany and elsewhere receive Gov. Roosevelt's unpalatable views about the proper use of offices, shows that they will be very cautious about antagonizing him openly. They would be very short-sighted if they were not able to perceive the superior advantages of position which he occupies. He not only has the confidence of the people in larger measure than any Governor whom we have had in many years, but he has in office with him a Legislature which can do little to hamper him seriously because of the lack of a safe Republican majority in the Senate. The Republicans have only 27 members, and it requires 26 votes to pass a bill. There are 23 Democratic members, and a

change of three votes will give them a majority at any time, while the refusal of two Republicans to vote with their associates will prevent the passage of any partisan measure. This, it will be seen, is not a safe basis upon which to make a fight against the Governor on either appointments or legislation. There are several Republican Senators, furthermore, who will welcome an opportunity to side with the Governor in a struggle for honest government, and the machine men are fully aware of this. They will not provoke a conflict in which they would be certain of defeat.

The most important action which Gov. Roosevelt has taken since his inauguration is his appointment of Franklin D. Locke of Buffalo as his special representative in the conduct of whatever prosecution may be authorized against Aldridge and Adams, the Superintendent of Public Works and the State Engineer under whom the canal frauds were perpetrated. Republicans were responsible for these frauds, and the strongest argument in the last campaign against the continuance of Republican rule at Albany was the Democratic claim that the party guilty of such corruption could not be trusted to punish it. This argument would have been fatal against any ordinary Republican candidate for Governor. All that saved Roosevelt was public confidence in his promise that he would pursue Republican rascals with even greater rigor than Democratic. He has now redeemed this promise by turning over the prosecution of Aldridge and Adams to an eminent lawyer who is an active Democrat, and who consequently cannot be even suspected, as the ablest Republican lawyer might be, of any disposition to "go easy" on partisan grounds. The Republican professional politicians will fume over the performance, but time will show that it is as wise from the party point of view as from the public; that, to quote from Gov. Roosevelt's inaugural, "in the long run, he serves his party best who most helps to make it instantly responsive to every need of the people, and to the highest demands of that spirit which tends to drive us onward and upward."

The extra session of the Kansas Legislature which ended on Friday, furnished the most striking example of recklessness in legislation regarding railroads that the Populist agitation in the West has yet begotten. There was no necessity for any new legislation and no warrant for any. But the Populist managers resolved to pass a new law. They secured pledges from Populist members of the Legislature that they would vote for any bill which the managers should submit, and such a bill was passed by both branches of the Legislature and signed by the Governor. It

substitutes a so-called "Court of Visitation" for the present Board of Commissioners; it invites frivolous and malicious complaints against the railroads by a provision that the State will pay all costs in case the complainant loses his suit, whereas if the railroad loses its case, it must pay the costs; and it does not afford as good facilities for the redress of just grievances as the law which it supplants. It seems more than doubtful whether this outrageous measure will stand the test of the courts. Good lawyers hold that various provisions of it are unconstitutional, to say nothing of the question whether any action taken at the late session is in compliance with the Constitution.

It is impossible to avoid the belief that President McKinley, great a man as he is, has descended so low as to treat the Hon. Whitelaw Reid badly. We say unhesitatingly that, under the accepted rules of politics, Reid was entitled to the English mission. He wrote or caused to be written in his paper two articles which would have secured the mission in any State which lived under our system. We mean the article on the President's "Utterances," and the article on his "Silences." We have some small familiarity with the mode of addressing monarchs or powerful persons in Oriental countries, and we say without hesitation that Mr. Reid's mode of describing not only what his master said, but what he did not say, was a perfect model of the way of approaching great personages who had something to give away. It did Mr. Reid great credit, considering how long he had been living in a Western country. From the account given in those eloquent and courtly papers, we do not see how Mr. Reid consents to live away from his godlike chief. Were we a dispenser of great offices we should be ashamed to look Mr. Reid in the face. Were such a man to publish to the world that what we said on any subject surpassed all previous efforts of human genius, and not only this, but that what we did not say was even better than what we did say, there is no honor we should deny him. We should not think the English mission good enough for him. We should make him Governor of a province, with some such title as the Chinese Kwang-seu, or "Succession of Glory."

The *Textile Record*, the Philadelphia organ of the manufacturers of woven fabrics, quotes from the Treasury statistics to show that "while imports of manufactures have since 1880 largely declined, exports have largely increased." Imports have fallen from \$268,333,432 to \$226,212,635, while exports have risen from \$102,856,015 to \$291,208,358. The object of the writer is, he says, to warn the manufacturers that the tariff is in

danger from these figures, which will surely be produced at the next election, and in his opinion cannot be answered by the friends of the tariff. What is even worse is, that wages are declining in several of the trades protected by the Dingley tariff. The *Record* is not disposed to give up the fight. It maintains that "the home market is worth more to us than all the other markets of the world," and it denounces the "open-door policy." We do not see what course is open to the manufacturers under these circumstances, except to raise the tariff on the articles which the present commercial movement threatens. The *Record* says the manufacturers must have this or lower wages. We would try both. We would put up the tariff and put down the wages. We see clearly the dangers of the latter. The argument that the object of the tariff was to raise the wages of the poor man would have to be abandoned, in spite of the fact that it has been freely used on the stump by the revered McKinley, and the Cobden Club would have to be set to work at some of its old tricks with our politics. But we advise the *Record* not to be too much frightened by the exports to the savages of the world. It is from the rich, civilized peoples that the danger comes. The savages will have to be made to buy, which is very expensive, but the civilized rascals buy of their own accord if the goods of a friendly nation are cheap.

The French have just been giving, in Madagascar, another specimen of their capacity for colonial government. The Governor of the island is, of course, a general, and he arranges all things to suit his own notions on every subject. It appears that there are gold mines in the island, and recently the Conseil d'Administration, which assists the Governor, passed a law which "permits the Malagassies to carry on mining operations, with the permission of the governors of provinces and the approbation of the resident general." This promptly raised a tremendous uproar, as it threatened Frenchmen with the competition of cheap labor. They say that if this is permitted, it will be impossible for Frenchmen to undertake the expense of machinery and the importation of European labor, etc., particularly as the law is likely to be changed by each new Governor-General. If they cannot have a monopoly of the money-making enterprises, they will not come out. One would say that, in the interest of the colony and of its civilization, everything should be done and permitted to tempt the natives into the paths of regular industry, yet this law has been abrogated. In the number of the *Temps* which lies before us there is still news of fighting in various parts of the islands, posts cut off, houses burned, settlers assassinated, and so on, but Frenchmen must have the trade and industry.

THE OLD CONSTITUTION.

During the whole of the century which is just expiring, the reverence of Americans for their Federal Constitution has been the marvel of publicists. Its success, in fact, in securing the attachment of the people has, as is well known, much surpassed the expectations of its framers. It has long been held up to admiration as the crowning proof of the political capacity of the Anglo-Saxon race. The wonder has been, too, not solely that the American people devised it, but that they obeyed it and lived quietly under it. We have no doubt that some, at least, of the Spanish-American republics have constitutions which seem as good as ours on paper, but the people do not respect them in practice. They revolt every now and then, when the Constitution stands in the way of some ambitious politician. In fact, ever since Tocqueville began to write about the American Constitution in the thirties, our adoration of it has puzzled Europeans. A great many Englishmen treated it as a kind of superstition. At the outbreak of the civil war, one English writer of eminence explained that one of our great difficulties was "that we had a false bottom to our political thought"—namely, the Constitution. For seventy years it furnished protection to an institution which disgraced us in the eyes of the world, and shocked the moral sense of the most intelligent portion of our own community. It was worshipped because it furnished for the first time in history an effective and enduring federal bond.

As the democratic spirit spread, and wealth increased, and we saw what was happening to private rights, even in England and in France, where there was no such institution, it was valued by the lawyers especially, because it furnished complete protection for property-holders against popular craze or greed. There have been many illustrations of this in the decisions of the Supreme Court. After the civil war, we had still enough reverence for it not to take any step which seemed seriously to violate its provisions, without amending it, so as not to disregard it. We even took the trouble to make slavery formally unconstitutional, after we had abolished it by military force. Artemus Ward's joke that "the earth revolved on her own axle-tree subject to the Constitution of the United States," was hardly an exaggerated expression of the popular feeling about it.

The first real breach in it was made by the invention of the "war power" to enable President Lincoln to abolish slavery. No one would now say that this was not at that time necessary, but it made it possible for any President practically to suspend the Constitution by getting up a war anywhere—that is, by calling into existence and activity the

most anti-social and anti-legal and most judgment-disturbing of all the influences by which men are swayed. There is no way of making a President account for what he does in time of war except by very uncertain processes which cannot be brought into play until long after the event. President McKinley, for instance, has been exercising powers during the last nine months which have been bringing the Constitution more and more into contempt, and to which some portion of the nation disputes his right, and there is no practical means of checking him; and a sort of flattery has sprung up about him which not long ago would have been thought impossible in the case of a ruler elected under a Constitution for a short term. What his career has most distinctly brought to our notice is the rapidity with which a very ordinary man, elected for a purpose to which he paid no attention, may turn opinion away from the Constitution and its necessities and its value. If any one had predicted even ten years ago that such a person by the aid of (for us) a trifling war, could in so short a time not only make the Constitution seem of small consequence, but bring the great men of our heroic age into a sort of discredit, so that he would make it easy for any "space writer" to pooh-pooh George Washington, who would have believed him?

The second great breach in the Constitution was the legal-tender decision. That so plain an intention of the Constitution with regard to the national money as it expressed with regard to State money, could be explained away so easily, was a serious revelation to the vast multitude of "have-nots" poured into the United States after the war of the rebellion. To it we soon owed the "greenback craze" and afterwards the "silver craze." In truth, it was the beginning of a whole series of attempts on property of various kinds, and it culminated in the Bryan movement, which seemed an attack on all our institutions, including the Supreme Court, and frightened us terribly.

For the last year the men who got McKinley elected under pretence of reforming the currency, have been trying to divert attention from the Bryan spectre by a war, and the war has helped them a good deal. But in so doing they have given the Constitution another tremendous kick. They have done much to destroy all respect for it among the large body who voted for Bryan in 1896, and who will doubtless vote again for somebody like him. The great McKinley, whom we are asked so glibly to accept as a better adviser than Washington, will not be with us always. Two years, we hope, and six years, we are sure, will see the end of him as a public man. He will retire, and his wisdom with him, to Canton, O., and leave us to face the mischief he has worked. That

mischief is the destruction, even among a large portion of our most intelligent class, of all sense of the value of our old Constitution as a defence of property and order, a great diminution of the sense of its value, in comparison with that of England, in placing bounds to any possible excesses of universal suffrage, of which we get plenty of specimens from our State Legislatures. Fancy the silver or greenback majority in the House and Senate in 1874 armed with the power over taxation, and currency, and wills, and legal procedure of the British Parliament; and yet that is apparently what a good many of us are driving at in order to have freer scope in climbing "glory-crowned heights" and ruling distant brown men. How long this madness will last it is impossible to say. But as long as it lasts, those are foolish who, with the example of Croker before their eyes, suppose that the Altgelds and Tanners and Debses and Bryans will not be delighted to find that, after a century's trial of constitutional government, we have at last been willing to take off of democracy the only bridle it has ever borne with patiently.

THE GOVERNOR'S MESSAGE.

Gov. Roosevelt's first message is thoroughly characteristic, and is especially strong upon the issue which, more than any other, decided his election, that of good government. The passage devoted to the question of civil-service reform is a sufficiently notable deliverance to constitute by itself a formal declaration of the intentions of the new Executive. It is an argument in favor of good government of the kind which has appeared hitherto only in the addresses and declarations of professional civil-service reformers. Furthermore, it is an unflinching demand by an incoming Republican Governor for the repeal of a law which had been enacted under the personal inspiration and at the personal solicitation of his immediate Republican predecessor in office. Gov. Roosevelt is probably the only Republican in the State capable of an act so contrary to party amenities as this.

If this passage in his message could be placed in deadly parallel with that upon the same subject in Gov. Black's first message, it would be seen how carefully the new Governor traverses the famous reasoning of his predecessor on the question of "starch in the civil service," answering it at every point, and demanding finally the unconditional repeal of the starchless law. There is in this act alone an assurance of fearless conduct upon the part of the new Governor which could have been supplied in such large measure in no other way. The spoilsmen of his party will not fail to note the significance of this deliverance. If they will read it carefully and then compare it with the language used

by the civil-service reformers who investigated the workings of Gov. Black's starchless law after it had been in operation for six months, they will be alarmed to notice how completely Gov. Roosevelt and the "hypocritical" reformers agree in their views. They will be convinced, we are confident, that in signing petitions to the Governor, beseeching him to make a "clean sweep" in the State service, they are wasting their time.

Gov. Roosevelt's language on the situation created by the Black law is studiously plain. He says that the inquiries he has made have satisfied him that the "present law works badly from every standpoint," that the pet Black idea of a half mark for "merit" and another for "fitness" is not a competitive examination at all, but a "farce," since the "so-called fitness test represents not a competitive examination, but the individual preference of the appointing officer, or rather of the outsider who has requested the appointment." That sounds like a deliverance from an incurable Mugwump. The Governor not only favors the repeal of the Black law, but the passage of a law "introducing one uniform practice for the entire State, and providing, as required by the Constitution, for the enforcement of proper civil-service regulations in the State and its subdivisions. This law should be modelled in its essential provisions upon the old civil-service law which was repealed by the civil-service law now upon the statute-books." The need of this is imperative, for, as the Governor says, the "methods of appointment to the civil service of the State are now in utter confusion, no less than three systems being in effect—one in the city of New York, one in other cities, and one in the State at large."

Scarcely less courageous and promising is the stand which Gov. Roosevelt takes in favor of biennial sessions of the Legislature. In this, as well as in relation to the civil-service laws, he takes issue squarely with the machine. An amendment to the Constitution providing for biennial sessions had been passed by one Legislature and was to come up again this winter, after which, in case of passage, it would go to the people for adoption. At this critical point in its progress the machine, after favoring it for several years, suddenly turned its back upon it, leaving all mention of the subject out of the platform upon which Roosevelt stood. He supplies the omission now by strongly recommending the passage of the amendment this winter, as a means for checking the evil of over-legislation. What he says on this point is well said, and is in strict accordance with the teachings of experience:

"The tendency to pass laws which are utterly unnecessary, even when not pernicious, or which are enacted purely to favor certain private interests, seems to grow instead of

diminish. It is difficult to devise an efficient check for it, but strenuous efforts should be made to find out and put into operation some such check. The State suffers very much more from over-legislation than it does from lack of legislation."

Another portion of the message deserving of high commendation is that which relates to the National Guard. Probably never before have the soldiers of the State received such intelligent criticism, or had the benefit of such excellent recommendations for their improvement. First and most important of these is the Governor's announcement of his decision to place the entire responsibility for the Guard's administration and efficiency in the hands of one man, Major-Gen. Roe; and with it goes the warning, unnecessary in this case, that a failure of the commanding officer to do his duty, or to bring the troops up to their proper state of efficiency, will lead to his immediate removal from office. Gov. Roosevelt's intention to refrain from undue interference with the commander of the troops will redound to his credit far more than his recommendations for improved arms and ammunition, however necessary these may be.

What the Governor says about other matters requires little comment. He reserves canal matters for special treatment later, and intimates that he may take up specially also the subject of police legislation for this city. That is a subject he does well to approach with great deliberation, for it is an extremely difficult and dangerous one to meddle with. Yet no one will deny his peculiar qualifications for a just understanding of it.

SPAIN'S RECUPERATION.

One of Valdés's novels has a picture of a decayed Spanish grandee. The poorer he got, the fiercer the pride with which he bore himself. As long as he had a shirt to his back it seemed impossible to do anything for him, for he would have slain any man daring to offer him assistance. But finally a donkey ate his last shirt, as it was flapping in the courtyard, and this at last opened the eyes and lowered the crest of the haughty Don. He discovered that he lived in a modern world, where pride was not negotiable; and slowly pulled himself together to accept his real situation and make the best of it.

Spain has now lost her last shirt, a bigger donkey than the one of the novel having eaten it. The question is if she, too, will now begin to think clear and see straight, and set herself valiantly to the work of national recuperation. There are some gratifying signs that she means to do so. If the country could rid itself of the incubus of its political little-great men, its prospects would be thought good. The voice of Spanish business men has made itself heard, to good effect, in the Saragossa congress of cham-

bers of commerce. No better statement could be asked than they made of the reforms necessary for Spain—rigid economy, reduced expenses, especially for military purposes, cure of a disordered currency, and a severance of the demoralizing relations between the Treasury and the Bank of Spain. And too much cannot be said in praise of the thrift of the hardy Spanish peasantry. The elements of national restoration and revival are certainly present in the qualities of the people and the natural resources of the Peninsula. Will Spain's statesmen be wise enough to develop and build with them?

One of the first things they must do is to stop talking as if there were something in a Spaniard, *qua* Spaniard, which makes him superior to other mortals. It was an extraordinary fact, but it undoubtedly was a fact, that Spaniards had an implicit trust in the purity of their race and blood as the great thing that was to give them victory over the United States. Admiral Montojo announced beforehand that he was going to annihilate Dewey's ships because they were manned by mixed nationalities. How could they possibly conquer pure-blooded Spaniards? Capt. Mahan reproduces, in his latest article, an interview held with the Spanish Secretary of the Navy just before the war broke out. One of the reasons which Señor Beranger gave for his calm prediction that "we shall conquer on the sea," was that "as soon as fire is opened, the crews of the American ships will begin to desert." Why was he so sure of that? Because "we all know that among them are people of all nationalities."

This is a castle in Spain in which Spanish public men must not longer dwell if they expect to save their country from further disasters. It is somewhat discouraging, therefore, to read of Gen. Polavieja's complacent views about the necessary superiority of Spaniards to Americans as colonizers. That is the one subject on which Spaniards should be dumb, or else make a clean breast of national incompetence. No such sudden and complete crash to ruin of a great colonial power as Spain's has been was ever known, and if there is one thing on which Spaniards cannot afford to patronize Americans, or even Turks or Hottentots, it is their own assumed skill in governing colonies.

But we refer to Gen. Polavieja's silly talk mainly to say that he and his class of political generals are the very thing to be reformed. They are part and parcel of the vicious system which has brought Spain low. The chief exponents of Spanish maladministration in the colonies have been her generals at the head of it. They have typified the blind greed which exploited the colonies for the sole benefit of the mother country. Returning with suspicious wealth from their posts, they have set up as political

leaders in Spain, and have done more than any other class of men to make Spanish politics the fierce and pitiful scramble it has been. Some way must be found of eliminating or muzzling these political generals, or the work of Spanish recuperation will be slow indeed. The dread of a military dictatorship has passed away for the present, largely through Sagasta's address in striking up an alliance with Gen. Weyler; but political regeneration cannot be had at the hands of these worst of all sinners.

How desperate is the plight of Spanish finance and currency is clearly shown in an article by M. de Foville, translated for the last number of the *Journal of Political Economy*. The details are stupefying, almost incredible. Spain's metallic currency was so stupidly inflated that the royal impress on a coin actually took from instead of adding to the market price of silver. Says M. de Foville: "It would be hard to imagine, in the whole range of monetary phenomena, a more depressing and disgraceful situation than that the value of a silver coin of full fineness should fall below that of the silver bullion it contains, when silver bullion itself is at a discount of 55 per cent." As for the tremendous expansion of the note issues, under the act of 1891, it is sufficient to quote Leroy-Beaulieu on this madness, apropos of which he wrote last August that "the man who really dug the grave for Spanish greatness was Cánovas, who, in point of financial ignorance and presumption, by far surpassed the limits allowed to a modern head of the state."

For Spain to climb out of this slough will require the greatest and most heroic efforts. In her financial rehabilitation, however, she luckily will have the active aid of France. French capital to the extent of \$400,000,000 is invested in Spanish railways alone. They have been almost ruined by the depreciation of Spanish currency. Having to pay interest in gold, they have had to accept progressively depreciating money in their receipts, while by law forbidden to increase charges for freight or passengers. Here then is a very powerful interest which may be counted upon as a steady influence, and which will contribute much towards Spain's getting her currency on a sound basis.

CHANGES IN EGYPT.

Lord Salisbury declined, in his Guildhall speech, to assert a formal British protectorate over Egypt, or even over the Sudan; but he has since practically done the thing. In the address to the sheiks at Omdurman, which the British agent in Egypt, Lord Cromer, made last week, he said to the natives: "For the future you will be governed by the Queen and the Khedive." Here was no mention at all of the Sultan, whose sovereignty over

Egypt is still theoretically perfect. The order of the names is also significant—the Queen first. Lord Cromer at once added that no attempt would be made to govern the Sudan from Cairo, so where the Khedive comes in it would be hard to say. By a polite fiction, he and the Queen are supposed to have agreed on Kitchener as the man to put in supreme control of the Sudan. The Sirdar is to administer the Sudan, therefore, not as an Egyptian province, but as a country for the proper government of which he is answerable to the Queen. This is, for all practical purposes, an assertion of British sovereignty in the Sudan.

There has undoubtedly been from the first both a legal and moral ambiguity attaching to the British position in Egypt. Mr. Gladstone's promise to withdraw the English troops, when once the country was pacified, was absolute, but has remained unredeemed for nearly twenty years. He it was also who described the Dervishes as "brave men fighting for their liberty." This was an awkward expression to fall from the lips of a Prime Minister dispatching a military expedition at the very time against these very men. Yet Lord Selborne, then of Gladstone's Cabinet, and assenting to his Egyptian measures, says in his 'Memorials' that the phrase, though embarrassing, only represented the embarrassing English attitude at the moment. But the awkwardnesses and embarrassments did not end there. The present Government distinctly asserted that Kitchener's expedition was undertaken to restore to Egypt her ancient Sudanese provinces. In his correspondence with the French Foreign Minister, Lord Salisbury at first rested British claims to the Sudan on the ground that it was an Egyptian province. Afterwards, when M. Delcassé was not satisfied with that argument, he shifted his ground, and asserted the right of conquest. That is where he appears to stand now, as Lord Cromer's speech at Omdurman is tantamount to the declaration of British sovereign rights in the Sudan. These, if they exist, are born only of conquest.

At the same time, it is clear that the English Government intends to give the natives the largest measure of home rule possible. Lord Cromer said that they were not to be governed from London any more than from Cairo. The Moslem religion is to be respected. The Gordon Memorial College, named in honor of a man who carried his Christian belief to the point of fanaticism, is not to meddle with religion. Its official language is to be Arabic, it is now announced, though English will be taught to the sons of sheiks in order to make them better fitted to understand English rule, and perhaps take office under it in the future. What the English have done with the natives in the army they hope to do with them also in civil life. The fighting of the native regiments at the At-

bara and at Omdurman was magnificent. The very men who used to throw away their guns and grovel in the sand in tears before a Dervish charge, now meet its fearful onslaught with courage and coolness equal to those of the Highlanders. Discipline, training, and the prestige of success have wrought these wonders in fellahs and negroes from the desert, and discipline and training may do as much for them in making them capable civil servants of the Queen.

In line with the enlargement of native rights and privileges in Egypt are certain changes just made in the jurisdiction of the mixed tribunals. An international commission began sittings in Cairo last spring in order to consider modifications of the powers of these anomalous courts. They have been asserting and exercising jurisdiction over all questions concerning real property, even when both parties were natives; they had allowed natives to transfer their claims to foreigners, so as to take their cases away from native courts and bring them before the mixed tribunals, and in many other ways had been extending their original and intended province as the courts with exclusive jurisdiction in all causes affecting foreigners. The international commission, at the request of the Egyptian Government, has now shorn away most of these dubious powers, and has restored to the native courts full jurisdiction in all cases affecting natives exclusively. This is an important recognition of the increasing competence of the Egyptians to manage their own affairs, and is in keeping with the promises made to the Sudanese by Lord Cromer.

HENRY CLARKE WARREN.

By the death of Henry Clarke Warren, which occurred at his home in Cambridge last week, Harvard College loses a loyal and devoted son and benefactor; the American Oriental Society, a faithful officer who had served for years as its Treasurer and as a director; and American scholarship one of its distinguished ornaments. He was born of sturdy New England stock, and was wholly unspoiled by wealth inherited from a father to whom it had come in return for substantial services to society. In his early childhood an accidental fall from a vehicle produced an injury by which he was physically disabled for life and forced to pass his days in seclusion. It was, therefore, a happy thing, not only for him, but also for the cause of science, that he became interested, already as an undergraduate at Harvard, in the study of Sanskrit, which he began with Prof. Greenough. After taking his bachelor's degree in 1879 (Prof. Taussig of Harvard and President Hyde of Bowdoin were among his classmates), he continued this study at the Johns Hopkins University, first with Prof. Lanman, and then, after the latter was called to Harvard, with his successor, Prof. Bloomfield. Later he took up Pali, the sacred language of the Southern Buddhists, and, establishing his residence at Cambridge, devoted himself to the study of the religion and literature of Buddhism.

The fruits of these labors were embodied in a volume entitled 'Buddhism in Translations' and published by Harvard University in 1896. It is based upon an exceedingly wide knowledge at first hand of the Pali scriptures in the original, and consists of more than one hundred selections therefrom done into English, and so chosen and arranged as to give a systematic account of the picturesque legend of Gotama Buddha, of the monastic life of his order, and of the philosophical conceptions which underlie the Buddhist religious system, with the doctrine of Karma and rebirth and the scheme of salvation from misery. Mr. Warren's purpose was not to reproduce what Western writers have guessed or supposed about Buddhism, but rather to make the native Buddhist speak directly for himself; and for this reason his work has an abiding value and authority. It is by all odds the best that has ever been written upon the subject in this country, and the merit of the achievement has been duly recognized not only by scholars in Europe, but also by genuine Buddhists in the Orient, among others by the King of Siam, who sent to Mr. Warren a splendid set of the royal edition of the Buddhist scriptures in thirty-nine volumes, recently published in commemoration of the twenty-fifth anniversary of his accession to the throne.

Mr. Warren next set himself to make an edition and translation of 'The Path of Purity,' or 'Visuddhi-magga.' This is an extensive and systematic treatise or cyclopædia *raisonnée* of Buddhist doctrine, composed by the famous Buddhaghosa, who flourished in the fourth century of our era and might perhaps be called the St. Augustine of India. For Mr. Warren's purpose an important Burmese manuscript was loaned him by the British Government from the library of the India Office, and others (Singalese) were furnished him by the eminent English scholars Rhys Davids and the late Dr. Richard Morris. The text is not far from being in a state of readiness for the printer; but the English version is done only in part. Mr. Warren saw that the critical value of his edition would be greatly increased if he could trace all of Buddhaghosa's quotations from his predecessors and from the canonical books back to their sources—as an editor of Augustine might do. This plan also has been carried out in large part.

It is hoped that the volume can be completed and issued in due course. If this proves to be the case, the work will be not only an honor to the University, and a noble memorial to the scholar who has achieved it, but also one of the greatest direct contributions that American learning has yet made to a most important chapter in the history of human thought. For it is already clear that the historians of philosophy can no longer ignore the Asiatic systems. Some of the most striking phases of European speculation have their earlier counterparts in India. And now, especially, when so many facile tongues are wagging with half-knowledge or worse about the *isms* of the "Land of the Rose-apple," it is indeed well that some sober-minded scholar should undertake to find out for us what the wisdom of these wise men of the East really was.

To many, the news of Mr. Warren's death will be the first knowledge that they ever had of him. Nevertheless, it is an event in the history of American learning. His was the modesty of the true scholar. In his daily life, as in his public benefactions, he shrank from notice. His good deeds were a fine ex-

ample of what his ancient Hindus called the *nirvita* (roughly, "the disinterested"). In living and in dying he triumphed over death. And the patient and cheerful courage with which he toiled beneath the yoke of his infirmities was heroic. Some of the old Buddhist ideas about personality are almost startling in their modernness, wholly at variance with the views traditional among us, and of altogether fundamental importance as the basis of a religious system. And so it is an interesting example of the utter non-dependence of religion upon dogma, or (if you will) of the good life upon religious theory, that this man, who was so deeply impressed on the one hand by what he calls "the strangeness of the intellectual landscape" of Buddhism, and on the other by the spotless life of the gentle teacher Gotama, should himself lead a life which came so beautifully near to the best ideals of the high-minded Christian gentleman.

IMPERIALISM VS. THE CONSTITUTION.

BRUNSWICK, Me., January 5, 1899.

Among the many questions to which the discussion of "imperialism" has given rise, that of the bearing of the Federal Constitution on the new policy of territorial expansion is certainly one of the most important. That the question has not received, as yet, anything like the consideration it deserves is, indeed, a striking illustration of the present national temper. Of late, however, the constitutional aspects of the issue which more than any other in our day strikes to the foundations of our political well-being, have with some emphasis been brought to public attention. The paper of Judge Simeon E. Baldwin, read at the recent meeting of the American Historical Association at New Haven, was a forcible presentation of the legal and constitutional phases of "expansion," and a thoughtful examination of the difficulties in the way of such a policy. On the other hand, Prof. Harry Pratt Judson of the University of Chicago, in an article in the current number of the *Review of Reviews*, addressed himself with somewhat of assertiveness to the task of showing that the alleged constitutional difficulties, including those dwelt upon by Judge Baldwin, are really not difficulties at all, and that our fundamental law offers no insuperable obstacle to the acquisition and administration of any part of the earth's surface we may desire.

With writers and students of prominence occupying such opposite positions, the question would clearly seem to be open to debate. That the Constitution affords, at best, but an uncertain light to the feet of the expansionist is, doubtless, evident enough. There is, however, a way of disposing of the difficulty, in evidence even among some who ought to know better, which could be dismissed as trivial did it not contain the germ of far-reaching danger. Granted, say these advocates of imperialism, that the Federal Constitution, even by liberal construction, presents serious difficulties when sought to be applied to the present emergency; but what then? The Constitution exists for the benefit of the people of the United States, and can have support only in their approval; and if, in conformity to an unmistakable popular demand, our boundaries are now to be enlarged, and alien peoples brought under our control, the Constitution, in so far as it does not permit of such action, must give way. The Constitution cannot stand in the

way of national progress. We have disregarded it in the past, yet without harm or loss of strength. We have acquiesced in judicial interpretations of it whose chief defense was later seen to be national exigency. So may we safely do now. In other words, since the Constitution and our desires conflict, we will relegate the former to the background. As for amending the Constitution, that is difficult and uncertain; better quietly allow its scope to be "enlarged" to suit the present need. Even an unconstitutional policy, vigorously executed and sedulously adhered to, may, after all, lead us into no evil.

Such specious argument, as has been said, would be trivial if it were not dangerous; if it did not, under a semblance of historical truth, make for revolution. On the other hand, the real difficulties of the situation are not, I think, met by dwelling upon the remarkable development of the Constitution by both interpretation and usage, or upon the practical success with which its broad and general provisions have been adapted to conditions for which they were never designed, and which their framers could by no possibility have foreseen. It is true, as has often been pointed out, that the Constitution is not all-comprehensive, and that its omissions and deficiencies, though somehow "got around," have often proved extremely embarrassing. For example, the Constitution does not provide for the annexation of territory; yet we have enlarged the area of the United States to more than four times its original size. The Constitution does not provide a form of Territorial government, or define the relations between the Territories and the United States; yet we have erected Territorial organizations, and laid down the principles governing the application of Constitution and laws within their jurisdiction. The Constitution does not provide for corporations, or authorize the issue of legal-tender paper money; yet the United States has chartered corporations from the first, and the issue of legal-tender paper has been upheld by the Supreme Court. There is this difference, however, between the extra-constitutional proceedings at these add other similar points and the questions raised by the new issue of imperialism. With hardly an exception, the constitutional applications and interpretations such as have just been cited, not only have involved questions to which no other reasonable answer was to be found, but have also been in line with a national policy whose necessity, appropriateness, and consistency were, even at the time, fairly obvious; while the policy of expansion, especially as regards the Philippines, stands for a departure from our uniform historic policy, and the assumption of obligations which not only have not been laid upon us of necessity, but the reasonableness and propriety of which are widely questioned. If we bargained for Louisiana because we had to, it is also true that we have bargained for the Philippines because we wanted to.

While, however, our previous "enlargement" of the Constitution, when viewed in the light of the attendant circumstances, hardly affords a satisfactory answer to some of the constitutional questions now under discussion, certain points may, by the uniform action of Congress and the Executive and the decision of the Supreme Court, be regarded as settled. The right of the United States to acquire and retain territory on this continent, though nowhere expressly given by

the Constitution, is no longer open to judicial inquiry. Judge Baldwin points out, further, that since islands fringing a continent are properly to be considered a part of it, our right to acquire territory may, with propriety, be extended to Porto Rico, Cuba (if that shall eventually come to us), and, perhaps, to Hawaii; for the acquisition of the Philippines, however, we find no warrant save in the right to take them as spoils of war, while for their permanent retention it is difficult to find authority anywhere. Further, the right of Congress to erect Territorial governments of such form as it deems fit, and to continue the Territorial status for considerable periods, is settled, as is the right of the Executive, pending the decision of Congress, to administer annexed territory under military government.

On two or three other points, however, of grave importance in view of the character of our new possessions, the provisions of the Constitution raise serious questions on whose solution the course of judicial interpretation, notwithstanding the confidence of Prof. Judson, seems to throw an ominous shade.

The provisions of the fourteenth and fifteenth amendments, relating to citizenship and suffrage, raise two kinds of inquiries. Judge Baldwin discusses at some length the meaning and scope of the term "United States of America," and is inclined to doubt whether territory not, even in the broadest sense, a geographical part of America can become a permanent part of the United States at all. Prof. Judson, while likewise devoting much space to the question, dismisses the contention at last as not among the obstacles to expansion. Still, though the discussion over the name be set aside as merely academic, other problems raised by the two amendments remain:

"All persons born or naturalized in the United States, and subject to the jurisdiction thereof, are citizens of the United States and of the State wherein they reside. No State shall make or enforce any law which shall abridge the privileges or immunities of citizens of the United States. . . . The right of citizens of the United States to vote shall not be denied or abridged by the United States or by any State on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude."

The first of these provisions, according to Judge Baldwin, "would seem to make every child, of whatever race, born in any of our new territorial possessions after they become a part of the United States, of parents who are among its inhabitants and subject to our jurisdiction, a citizen of the United States from the moment of birth"; while by the fifteenth amendment such of these persons as are civilized "must have the same right of suffrage which may be conceded in those Territories to white men of civilized races." A citizenship of the United States for Filipinos and Hawaiians, with the further privilege of attaining State citizenship as well, is a possibility which few of us can contemplate with satisfaction, and in regard to which our enthusiastic expansionists are silent.

A second constitutional difficulty arises over the application of certain provisions of sections 8 and 9 of art. 1. Section 8 declares that "all duties, imposts, and excises shall be uniform throughout the United States"; while by section 9, "no tax or duty shall be laid on articles exported from any State," nor shall there be discrimination between different ports in the matter of trade regulations. If our new possessions are to be reck-

oned as parts of the United States, within the meaning of the Constitution, it seems impossible, without violating the whole intent and spirit of these sections, to have different rates or kinds of taxes for different localities—one tariff for continental America and another for the Philippines, export duties in one place and not in another. How we can get on with a protective system in America and an "open door" at Manila is not very clear; but Judge Baldwin does not hesitate to suggest that, under the present Constitution, the two are, in his opinion, incompatible. A fair and logical interpretation of the Constitution at this point would appear to necessitate one of two courses: either an "open door" for the present United States, Porto Rico, and Hawaii, if there is to be one for the Philippines, or else the extension to our new dominions of our own tariff system, whatever that may be.

A further question has to do with trial by jury. The provisions of the Constitution in regard to the right of jury trial are explicit, and are couched in terms not easily misunderstood. That the constitutional guarantees of personal liberty serve as limitations on the power of Congress in dealing with Territories as well as with States, and that they may be claimed by any person anywhere within the civil jurisdiction of the United States, is a doctrine supported by judicial sanction. It should not be forgotten, however, that the maintenance of the jury system in purity and efficiency presupposes a political point of view and habit of mind by no means universal as yet, and practically unknown outside of English-speaking countries. I can but feel myself in accord with those who would regard the extension of the jury system, as we have it, to the conglomerate and backward populations of our new acquisitions as a calamity only equalled, if equalled at all, by the establishment among them of universal suffrage. Yet how, again, under the Constitution, trial by jury could be denied to the people of Hawaii and the Philippine Islands, if those regions are held to be parts of the United States, does not yet appear.

Lastly, the incompatibility between a constitution and the political actions of the people who live under it need not consist solely in the defectiveness of the instrument at this point or that, or in outgrown statements of prohibition and command. It consists as often in a general lack of fitness for the work it is expected to do, a pervading want of harmony between the constitutional structure and the temper and purpose of the national life. Viewed in this light, the constitutional status of imperialism seems to me to raise many questions of grave concern, not the less important because their answer works a subtle modification in the national attitude. The sources and methods of national revenue and taxation, the extent of the war powers, the participation of the House of Representatives in the conclusion of treaties, the status of the civil service, and the lack of uniformity and continuity in foreign policy incident to frequent changes of administration, are some of these questions. To none of them is the answer easily to be read in the volume of judicial decision thus far; yet the adoption of the policy of expansion cannot fail to force them more and more upon our attention. I can but think that our present schemes of territorial enlargement, particularly that for the acquisition of the Philippines, bristle with dangers which will

increasingly appear; but of the many dangers, that of insensibly losing the distinct type of national character contemplated by the Constitution, and imagining ourselves to be what we are not, seems to me many degrees the greatest.

I have commented on these opposing views of Judge Baldwin and Prof. Judson, not for the unimportant purpose of expressing approval of the one or doubt about the other, but because, as it seems to me, they serve very well to call attention to a cardinal point in the whole expansionist position. That point is that the policy upon which we have, to all appearances, entered, is opposed to the spirit, if not to the letter, of the Federal Constitution. Even though we admit, if only for the sake of the argument, that every previous enlargement of the scope of the Constitution is defensible upon reasonable grounds of national necessity, the contention has little application to conditions in which, as has already been said, we are governed, not by our necessities, but by our desires. To the sincere imperialist, in other words, the logical accompaniment of his doctrine is an amended or revised Constitution, and it is for this that he ought forthwith, and in good faith, to strive. There are, I take it, but three courses open to us. The first is to admit the disparity between the Constitution and our wishes, and seek a revision of the Constitution in harmony with our aspirations. This is dangerous, but it is honest. The second is to uphold unconstitutional acts by arbitrary and forced interpretations of constitutional provisions. This is lawlessness in the garb of "progress." The third is to "let the Constitution go," and give the people what it is said they want. This is revolution.

WILLIAM MACDONALD.

Correspondence.

OUR DEAREST FOE.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: In the present agitation of the question of territorial expansion, it may be of interest to your readers to recall the following passage, written fifteen years ago by one of our foremost historians. It sounds a significant note of warning. In the closing paragraph of Parkman's "Montcalm and Wolfe" the author says:

"Those who, in the weakness of their dispositions, needed help from England against the savages on their borders, have become a nation that may defy every foe but that most dangerous of all foes, herself; destined to a majestic future if she will shun the excess and perversion of the principles that made her great, prate less about the enemies of the past, and strive more against the enemies of the present, resist the mob and the demagogue as she resisted Parliament and King, rally her powers from the race for gold and the delirium of prosperity to make firm the foundations on which that prosperity rests, and turn some fair proportion of her vast mental forces to other objects than material progress and the game of party politics."

Very respectfully yours,

PERCY F. BICKNELL.

MALDEN, MASS., January 7, 1890.

PICTORIAL ENJOYMENT.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Your reviewer of "How to Enjoy Pictures," in the issue of December 29, seems

to me to take too scornful a view of average men and women. "People," he says, "not too uneducated to read a book, who yet need to be told that the way to enjoy a picture is to look at it more than once, . . . to try to understand . . . the character in a portrait, even the general lines of composition in a landscape or figure subject." The implication of the review seems to be that if people do not already have a thoroughly sympathetic and appreciative way of looking at pictures, they are not worth considering at all.

I believe this is a wrong attitude to take. The average intelligent American, either man or woman, has necessarily grown up with very few chances to see the original work of great painters or to hear artists discuss such work. Books on art are plenty, to be sure, but these are full of technical terms and phrases which no layman understands, and, being published for those already rich in money and opportunities, their price is usually prohibitory to people with moderate means. And what is the result? Look at the average man and woman when visiting a picture-gallery or running through the pages of a well-illustrated magazine; nine-tenths of the pleasure they might derive from the pictures is lost because they have never had any adequate help from parents or friends or school-teachers as to the way to look at such things. They are *not* stupid; they are *not* hopeless cases. Give them a hint or two of what you yourself see to admire in the picture at which they have been gazing blankly, and they are quick to follow its lead for themselves, discovering more and more of what the artist put into his work. It is no disgrace that they did not know it all at first and by instinct. Most of us are ignorant enough in one direction or another; it is not the mark of a truly wise man to despise another's beginnings in a line where he himself may have been specially favored by fortune and circumstance.

Nor is this all. When the MS. of Miss Emery's unpretentious little volume was offered to me for publication, I at first supposed it would prove readable mainly by persons quite unused to looking at pictures; but, on a personal examination of the book, I found it actually adding to my own pleasure in pictures with which I had long been familiar. It was like looking at them again in company with an intelligent and sympathetic acquaintance, and comparing our impressions. And I find this experience of mine is being repeated in the case of many accomplished and cultivated persons who have also read the book and taken frank pleasure in it.

I am personally not unfamiliar with art; and it seems to me that, in addition to the accepted literature of art criticism, some such simple, sensible, informal comments and suggestions as are given in this book are greatly needed.

Yours truly,

LOUIS PRANG.

BOSTON, January 3, 1898.

[We said "it is even probable that there is a class" which needs to be told what this book undertakes to tell. Mr. Prang's contention seems to be that it is a large and respectable class. Doubtless he is right. It is the fault of our modern culture that a man may be highly educated in literature, and remain an utter barbarian as far as knowledge of

or feeling for art is concerned. But we must think that a better book could be written for those who need it.—ED. NATION.]

TO TALK LIKE A BOOK.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Looking through a file of the *Nation* for 1898, I came upon the following statement (in a review of some recent Italian publications, in the issue of September 1, 1898):

"Signor Avancini, on the other hand, is a Milanese writer of both prose and verse whose earliest volume appeared in 1888, and who is therefore quite of the *fin-de-siècle* school. In fact, some of his expressions are startlingly modern, as for instance where a younger brother replies to the reproaches of an elder with a 'Tu parli come un libro stampato.'"

Permit me to say that the reviewer was needlessly startled by the phrase quoted. In the libretto of Mozart's "Don Juan," by Da Ponte, Leporello says of *Donna Elvira*: "Parla come un libro stampato." Da Ponte, of whom Mr. Krehbiel has recently written so entertainingly, was in his way a clever man, but not exactly what we now understand by *fin-de-siècle*.

As a matter of fact, "You talk like a book" is an old and common expression in more than one European language.

Yours truly,
JANUARY 2, 1899.

Francis A. Walker; and 'A History of English Romanticism in the Eighteenth Century,' by Prof. Henry A. Beers of Yale.

A holiday book which arrived too late for notice before the holidays is Walter Crane's 'Floral Fantasy in an Old English Garden' (Harpers). It is in Mr. Crane's best vein of dainty fancy and delicate line and color, and when Mr. Crane is at his best he is very good indeed. The text is little more than a string of puns upon English floral names, and is not very successful in rhythm; but no one will care much about the text.

A holiday book of very different quality is 'Ten Drawings in Chinatown,' by Ernest Peixotto (San Francisco: A. M. Robertson). This is published in a limited edition with a good deal of pretension, the drawings being printed on Chinese (?) paper and mounted on loose boards, while the text (by Robert Howe Fletcher) is printed, Chinese fashion, on one side only of the paper, and each page is surrounded by a yellow line. The drawings themselves are not, however, above the average of magazine work in technical merit, and have no great interest of subject and no charm of any sort.

The story of the Sepoy Mutiny has been often told, but there is still room for the personal experience of any who were sufferers from its horrors. Col. Edward Vibert (late of the Fifteenth Bengal Cavalry) was a young lieutenant in the Fifty-fourth Native Infantry in the cantonments at Delhi when the mutineers, who had made their first outbreak at Meerut, marched over the bridge of boats across the Jumna and were fraternized with by the garrison of Delhi. Vibert was on duty in the Main Guard at the Cashmere gate, saw the troops hesitate a moment, then with crazy excitement join the mutineers and turn upon their officers. These and the civil officials, their wives, and children were nearly all massacred, but a handful of officers with a few women rallied at the Main Guard, dropped from an embrasure into the ditch, and made their way to the cantonments. But here also the mutiny had spread, and again little parties fled from their blazing quarters, shot down and sabred as they went. Vibert was in a group of ten of both sexes who managed to elude their pursuers, and, after some days of fearful experience, to reach an English garrison. The circumstantial account of all this is the basis of the book, and it is thrilling to the last degree. An appendix gives Col. Mackenzie's briefer narrative of like personal experience in the outbreak at Meerut, and a lady's story of her escape to Kurnaul. The illustrations are photographs of palaces, mosques, and residences, some with the visible effects of siege cannonade. Charles Scribner's Sons are the American publishers.

A volume of reprints from the *Journal of Education* is issued by Whittaker & Co., New York, under the title 'Essays, Mock-Essays, and Character Sketches.' These pieces may be said to range "from grave to gay, from lively to severe," and are altogether readable. Some of them are of solid value from the educational point of view, and few of them are without appreciable merit. They indicate that the *Journal of Education* is a publication calculated to stimulate teachers and to broaden their culture.

As an afterclap of 1898, or a foretaste of 1900, Mr. Lyman F. George has written an essay entitled 'Falling Prices and the Remedy' (Boston: George Book Publishing Co.). He contends that prosperity depends on ris-

Notes.

Thomas Y. Crowell & Co. have in press for early publication 'How Count Tolstoy Lives and Works,' by P. Sergyeenko, translated by Isabel F. Hapgood, and fully illustrated; 'Between Caesar and Jesus,' by George D. Herron; 'Municipal Monopolies,' by M. N. Baker, John R. Commons, and others; and 'Contemporary French Novelists,' by René Doumille, translated by Mary D. Frost.

'Great Books as Life Teachers,' by the Rev. Newell Dwight Hillis, is in the press of Fleming H. Revell Co.

The sixth and final volume of Prof. James Schouler's 'History of the United States' is set down for publication in the early autumn by Dodd, Mead & Co.

Interesting announcements by Charles Scribner's Sons are an international edition of Tolstoy's works in twenty large volumes, translated direct from the Russian under the supervision of Nathan Haskell Dole, with photogravure illustrations; and a new edition of Dickens's Works in thirty-four volumes, with illustrations printed from a duplicate, hitherto unused set of plates after designs by Cruikshank, Phiz, and others.

The first volume of 'The Story of France,' to be completed in two, by Thomas E. Watson, will be published immediately by Macmillan Co., who announce also 'The Story of Old Fort Loudon,' by Charles Egbert Craddock; a translation of Carl Schnabel's 'Text-Book of Metallurgy'; and 'The Principles of Agriculture,' by Prof. L. H. Bailey of Cornell.

Immediately forthcoming from Henry Holt & Co. are the American edition of 'Eighteenth Century Letters,' edited by R. Brimley Johnson, in connection with Stanley Lane Poole and Dr. Birkbeck Hill; 'God's Prisoner,' a story by John Oxenham; 'Discussions in Education,' by the late President

ing prices, that rising prices are caused by inflating the currency, and concludes that the currency ought to be inflated. He contends that "the American dollar should be made of paper, and should be stamped thus: One Dollar, United States of America. This is all that a gold dollar has on it, and it is all that is necessary for a paper dollar." He informs us that the panic of 1893 was brought on by a conspiracy of twelve of the largest national banks in New York city, and that they invited all the financial institutions of the city to join them. Some other statements of equal veracity are added, and on these premises the author's argument for inflation rests.

The view of political economy which is based largely on the doctrine of "marginal" or "final" utility is presented in 'Economics,' by E. T. Devine (Macmillan). As a general account of social activity the book is not without interest, but we can hardly regard the presentation of the subject as the best "for the class-room of the college and high school."

In 'Home Economics' (The Century Co.), Miss Maria Parloa furnishes to housekeepers a veritable encyclopædia of their difficult and important art. This has now become so complex as to demand systematic study under intelligent guidance, which Miss Parloa provides. In discussing the subject of building in such a manual, however, she undertakes too much. That subject requires more detailed treatment than can be given within her limits, and general principles are of slight practical value. But in what relates to the care of the house and to the commissariat of the household, her precepts are excellent. Her ideals are, to be sure, unattainable by ordinary housekeepers, but they show them the end towards which they must struggle, and her recipes are invaluable for every-day use. The chapters on foods and on marketing and carving will be found useful by men as well as women.

The 'Concise Dictionary of Greek and Roman Antiquities,' edited by F. Warre Cornish, Vice-Provost of Eton College (Henry Holt & Co.), though derived from Sir W. Smith's larger dictionary, is no mere abridgment of that well-known work. Mr. Cornish has naturally recast, and in many cases rewritten, articles that modern research in classical archaeology had rendered in part obsolete. A great improvement in method is the grouping of articles under one head, *e. g.*, Architecture, Coinage, etc. The addition of over 200 fresh illustrations increases the definiteness of the book. Students of Cicero and Demosthenes will be grateful for the appendices of Greek and Roman law-terms. In the article on the theatre, Mr. Cornish discusses, with a bare mention, Professor Dörpfeld's theory that the Greek stage was on the same level as the orchestra until Roman times. Though a dictionary of antiquities is not the field for archaeological controversy, we think it would have been instructive at this point, in so important a work, to give very briefly the literary evidence—or at least the titles of the plays—in support of Dr. Dörpfeld's view. Mr. Cornish's volume is likely to supersede Smith and Rich in general school and undergraduate use. The Greek, Latin, and English indices are excellent. The book has a pleasing and scholarly exterior, and, though it contains more than 800 pages, is not cumbersome.

We have received the third edition of

Mau's 'Führer durch Pompeji' (Leipzig: Engelmann), which, besides additions to the old text, contains plans of the forum, the theatre, and the streets of tombs, together with some account and a plan of the newly discovered Villa Boscoreale. The little book has long been known as the traveller's best guide through the ruins, but it is naturally too brief to be of much interest on this side of the water. All students of Roman life, however, must be looking forward with interest to the same author's new book on Pompeii, which is announced by the Macmillan Co.

In connection with the foregoing we may fitly mention an enterprise to which the libraries of this country alone might give all the support needed. We mean the publication of the copper-plate engravings of the Temple of Isis at Pompeii now in the archives of the Royal Academy of Archaeology, Letters and Arts at Naples. This body is the successor of the Herculaneum Academy, which in 1851 published a first and only Part of these ninety plates, political troubles preventing a completion. The century and a third which has elapsed since the temple was uncovered has wrought a considerable deterioration in it, and these admirable engravings are the best evidence extant of what it originally was. Their publication (entire) has been strongly recommended by Prof. Mau, and is to be superintended by A. Sogliano. Subscriptions may be sent to the Secretary of the above Royal Academy, Prof. Michele Kerbaker. The price of the large folio will be twenty dollars, and there must be thirty subscriptions to guarantee the undertaking.

It is now nearly twenty-five years since Halm edited Velleius Paterculus, and in the meantime little has been done to improve the text of that historian. The new edition by Prof. Robinson Ellis (Oxford: University Press; New York: Henry Frowde) is, therefore, a welcome contribution. It is a purely critical edition, with preface, apparatus, and commentary written in Latin. The text is based upon the Basle manuscript of Amerbach. This copy, made before the *editio princeps* appeared, was not, in Prof. Ellis's opinion, the *exemplum properanter ac infelicitate descriptum* made for Rhenanus by a careless friend. Nor was it either, as he thinks, a copy of that copy (as Fechter and Halm held); but it was written, he believes, by Amerbach for his own use, and transcribed directly from the now lost Codex Murbacensis. We cannot say that we are convinced on this point by Prof. Ellis's arguments, which, especially on page xiv, seem to us illogical; but neither is he altogether convinced himself, for two pages later he seems willing to grant that Amerbach may have worked from a copy. But we do think that Prof. Ellis has shown that the Amerbach, whatever its origin, represents the lost Murbacensis much more closely than does the *editio princeps*, aided though that is by the collation of M. made by Burer. The very errors of the Amerbach are in its favor, for they are of just the sort that Rhenanus tells us he found in M., and which he smoothed away in his edition into what he thought Velleius must have said. We cannot enter into the details of Prof. Ellis's arguments: they are chiefly orthographical. The result of his work shows a great many differences between his readings of the text and those of Halm. We have noted about twenty in chapters 9-12 alone of the first book. It is

obvious that students of Velleius cannot afford to be without this new edition.

After many days we have once more an edition of Cæsar's Gallic War in which the great author is treated as a historian, and not as a medium for the study of the Latin language or the niceties of grammar. To Mr. St. George Stock we owe this boon, and to the munificence of the Oxford Clarendon Press (New York: Henry Frowde), which has presented it in a large and handsome octavo. Seven long introductory chapters precede the text, their titles being: The Commentaries, The Character of Cæsar, Wars with the Gauls; Gaul, Britain, Germany; and The Roman Army. The Latin text is that of Hoffman, which is now, it seems, the *textus receptus* at Oxford. Each of the books has prefixed to it a full summary, and the notes, at the foot of each page, are brief and helpful to one who is reading Cæsar to find out what he has to say. Several excellent indexes close the volume. Mr. Stock has here put students under a great obligation by his faithful presentation, between two covers, of the results of the best researches on Cæsar's campaigns, and on the condition, in antiquity, of the countries which he visited. The book certainly ought to be found in every good school library.

The cheaper magazine is to be tried here by the English promoter, C. Arthur Pearson, editing it in person. It will cost eight cents, against the sixpence asked for it in England.

At the opposite pole from such an enterprise is *Erevna*, a projected periodical "devoted to the purpose of conveying to the Greek public a knowledge of Western progress and ideas," under the editorship of Platon E. Drakoules, author of 'Neohellenic Language and Literature,' favorably reviewed in these columns. The place of publication will be Oxford, and the annual subscription four shillings, or five drachma. It will for the present be published only in Greek, and will thus have an interest for scholars and instructors the world over. Yet one thousand subscribers are needed to justify beginning the issue. The editor's address is No. 148 Kingston Road, Oxford.

Petermann's *Mitteilungen*, number eleven, opens with a monograph upon the lakes of the Black Forest, with tables and sections showing area, temperature, and depth. There follows a description of the glaciers and vegetation of a little-known region in the northwestern Caucasus. Among the shorter articles is one upon the anomaly of the temperature of the surface water of the oceans, with a colored temperature and current chart.

The German Government has appointed Prof. Dr. Sachau, the well-known Syriac scholar and professor in the University, director of the Oriental Seminary in Berlin. Fully a decade ago, when the German colony scheme began to develop rapidly, the Seminary was opened as an experiment, the object being to make it primarily a practical and not a scientific (*wissenschaftlich*) institution, in which young men would acquire Oriental languages for use in their callings in the colonies as missionaries, merchants, travellers, representatives of the Government, and the like. A double course was established—one, in which the scientific principles of the languages, as also the literature, were taught by European specialists; and a practical department, entirely in charge of native teachers, in which the students learned to speak, read, and write these

tongues. The average attendance at the Seminary has been continuously a hundred and more, and the authorities have determined to make it a permanent institution. Prof. Sachau has been in temporary charge from the beginning, and now has been made the permanent Rector. He does not sever his connection with the University, nor has the Seminary any special connection with the University. The Seminary is the only one of its kind in existence.

An architectural problem unprecedented in its magnitude and restrictions combined is approaching its solution at Munich. The vast new building of the National Museum is so far completed that the extensive historical collections are in part installed in their new quarters, and in part will be removed there in the near future. Its architect, Prof. Gabriel Seidl, had, in the words of Dr. Striedinger (in the *Neueste Nachrichten*), to build the Museum *around* the existing collections. A large number of carved and panelled ceilings belonging to several centuries called for rooms of divers sizes and heights; wall space, of proper dimensions, shape, and exposure to the light, had to be provided for valuable tapestries. The effective disposition of friezes, columns, capitals, doors, inlaid floors, of numerous complete apartments decorated and furnished in styles of various periods, and of many other collections and separate objects, presented extraordinary difficulties to artistic combination in the architectural designs and decorations. The successful overcoming of these is an event of great interest to architects.

The sixth annual Conference of Teachers of Chemistry of the Northwest was held at Ann Arbor, Mich., during the holidays; Prof. William McPherson of Ohio State University being temporary chairman, and Prof. A. B. Prescott of Michigan University (who, with Prof. W. W. Daniels of Wisconsin University, was responsible for the order of business), temporary secretary. The previous sessions have been held in Chicago. The Conference is unique in that it has no constitution, no dues, no permanent officers, no set papers, and in that it publishes no proceedings and sets forth no approved scheme of instruction. The entire time is spent in discussing questions left over from the preceding meeting or proposed by a committee appointed for that purpose. These questions have reference solely to instruction in chemistry in high school and college. At previous sessions the place, length, and character of the course in chemistry for the high school have received attention, especially the number and order of students' experiments; whether the work should be wholly qualitative or wholly quantitative or a mixture of the two; whether analysis, so called, should form any part of the course; and how to organize research work for high-school teachers in conjunction with the staff of the affiliated colleges. At the Ann Arbor meeting, questions pertaining to college chemistry were taken up—how to fit the instruction to high-school work; courses in physical chemistry, and courses in organic chemistry. The discussions have always been characterized by unusual freshness and vigor, and it is a pity that some permanent record of them has not been preserved and made public.

—A correspondent writes:

"Having had much experience of the difficulty of consulting the card catalogue of a large library, it has occurred to me that

it might be an advantage if the main-title cards should be colored, the cross-reference cards remaining white."

—In the *Century* for January the commander of the *Maine* brings his "personal narrative" to an end, without, however, throwing much light on the explosion, and Lieut. Hobson adds an instalment to his graphic but quiet story of the sinking of the *Merrimac*. An article on the "Advantages of the Nicaragua Canal" is contributed by another naval officer, Capt. A. S. Crowninshield, who makes the extraordinary statement that the present Nicaraguan concession "will expire" in October, 1899, "should Congress [that is, the Congress of the United States] fail to pass the bill" now pending before it. This was, of course, written before the granting of the new concession to the Cragin-Eyre syndicate, but it is strange that Capt. Crowninshield should share the politicians' delusion that the control of Nicaragua over her territory depends on the passage of any particular bill at Washington. If the matter is under our jurisdiction, we can make Nicaragua do what we please at any time. The granting of a new concession while the bill in Congress is still pending, is Nicaragua's reply to the allegation that by passing the bill we obtain the benefits of the old concession. A clever prize essay by Miss Florence Hotchkiss (a Vassar graduate) discusses Carlyle's "Dramatic Portrayal of Character," while John Patrick writes about "The Carlyles in Scotland." Much of what the former says is just; she perceives that Carlyle's character-painting belongs often to a somewhat sensational species of art. Is there not, after all, at bottom a literary connection between the French Revolution and the eternal spirit of melodrama? Do not the constant insistence upon the one carefully selected trait; the startling shifts of scene; the sweep of the whole to the climax, occasionally recall this "transpontine" stage? Why is Maillard always "shifty Maillard," why is Pétion always "virtuous Pétion," and Robespierre never anything but "sea-green" or "incorruptible"? Is it heresy to say that Carlyle's so-called characters of the 'French Revolution' are rather stagey portraits?

—The *Atlantic Monthly* has for its leading paper an article by President Eliot called "Destructive and Constructive Energies of Our Government Compared." He institutes a comparison between military and naval expenditure on the one hand and expenditure for the advancement of science, the development of technical skill, the saving of life, the improvement of industries, and the support of education on the other, without, however, suggesting that expenditures on military and naval preparation be diminished, much less stopped. He conservatively maintains that while we ought to have "the most perfect instruments and appliances of war" and "adequate bodies of men," we ought to make "much freer expenditures than our nation has ever made" in the other direction. The article intentionally avoids the questions, "How many perfect instruments and appliances of war do we need?" and "What are adequate bodies of men?" Yet it is these questions which must be answered before we know that any money will be left for "constructive energies." For it is the Imperialists, and not Mr. Eliot or his friends, who have got hold of the Treasury. Their first aim seems to be fostering destructive energies, and they are able to

determine that money shall be destructively used until they see fit to stop. Still, they will all agree enthusiastically with what he says, and will be ready enough to vote some money for his programme out of any money in the Treasury not otherwise appropriated—when the proper time comes. The article is full of curious and instructive facts, as, for instance, the table of expenditures for the improvement of Columbia River at the Cascade Gorge. The original estimate in 1877 was \$1,459,136; the amount expended has been \$5,007,742, and after twenty years' work the improvement is still unfinished, and of no use to anybody. Norman Hapgood contributes an article on "The Actor of To-day" which lovers of the stage will find worth reading. The demoralization of the theatre is summed up in the epigram, "The Philistine who once condemned the play-houses, now chooses the plays," which may or may not be accurate, but is a fair hit at a generation of Philistine theatre-goers more or less the descendants of a Philistine generation of theatre-scorners. A remarkable "signed statement of a variety actor" is quoted as follows: "I think the day is not far distant when it will be a common occurrence to see 'Julius Caesar' or 'Hamlet' played by variety actors at continuous performances. I am busily engaged, at present, reconstructing Shakspeare's plays, as there are lots of lines in them that I do not like, and I think by careful pruning and rewriting I can improve on them so as to make them acceptable to a vaudeville audience." Speaking of "The School for Scandal," as brought out here, he says: "Sheridan, in giving an admirably balanced dramatic action, entirely overlooked the necessity of glorifying one actor. There was, therefore, nothing open to Mr. Daly but to supply Sheridan's oversight, which he did with astounding frankness." But adaptation is an art by itself.

—*Scribner's* contains the first instalment of Stevenson's letters, contributed by his authorized biographer, Sidney Colvin. Their interest is mainly biographical, as they were written by Stevenson to his parents in 1868 and 1869, when he was in training for an engineer. The accompanying illustrations help to make them attractive. Mr. Roosevelt begins his account of the "Rough Riders," but gets no further in this number than raising the regiment, of the composition of which he gives a minute account. "The British Army Manoeuvres" is another illustrated article, contributed by Capt. W. Elliott Cairnes. For manoeuvres on a large scale in a thickly settled country like England, a Manoeuvre Act, to authorize the Government to move troops over a selected area, has been found necessary. By giving a few months' notice, territory can be "proclaimed," and, on proclamation, the Government acquires the right to move troops, close roads, forbid access to certain points, and to make all ordinary civilian traffic of the district subservient for the time to the military requirements of the situation. On the other hand, compensation for injury and disturbance is provided for. Without some such legislation, it would soon become necessary, in England at least, "to abandon all attempts to train an army for war." The difficulty of getting perfect training for war in time of peace has always been felt by experts, and perhaps we shall soon hear of the necessity of proclaiming parts of Greater New York for the purpose. There are large

areas of the remoter portions of the city said to be admirably adapted for it. The most ambitious literary performance in the current number of *Scribner's* is Mr. Robert Grant's first "Search-light Letter." It is addressed to the youth of both sexes in search of the ideal, and is occupied with initially jocular and finally serious reflections on life, democracy, and the ideal. For ourselves, we like Mr. Grant best when he is least serious; when he is solemn, we still like him, but find him hard to follow. He does not seem to perceive that his difficulty lies not in any opposition between democracy and the ideal, but in an inherent opposition between excellence and equality. A letter showing how to reconcile the longing for excellence with actual equality would do more to help forward Mr. Grant's philosophy than any statement of what it is.

—*Harper's* opens with the necessary illustrated naval article by Mr. S. A. Staunton, Flag Lieutenant to Admiral Sampson, who gives a straightforward account of last summer's operations in the West Indies. Journalists will be interested in what he tells of the *Squadron Bulletin*, the daily newspaper printed on a hand-press on board the *New York* during the campaign. Every evening, it seems, the chief of staff dictated to a stenographer the main facts relating to military and naval movements which had been reported during the day, and the next morning a copy of the *Bulletin* was in the hands of men and officers throughout the fleet. The tone of the *Bulletin* was satisfactory to all its readers, none of whom felt any inclination to "stop his paper." On the *Mantelpiece*, if we remember right, Capt. Reece served out a copy of the *Saturday Review* to every man; the idea of his creator being that there was something very ludicrous in the conception. Thus are the jokes of one generation turned into the realities of the next. There are a number of solid political articles, among which perhaps the most noticeable is Sidney Whitman's "The Sultan at Home." Mr. Whitman's view of the Turk and the Turkish Emperor is such that "Abdul the damned" will derive much satisfaction from the article. The picture drawn of the Turk is almost identical with that which used to be drawn by Englishmen fifty years ago. He is every inch a gentleman, rather humane and tolerant, and, if anything, too indulgent to Christians. It is impossible to understand why, if this view be correct, he is made to decamp from Crete. But an enthusiast like Mr. Whitman must be allowed to color his picture a little. He notes the strength of the German hold upon Turkey—German and Austrian goods pouring into the markets, a German and Austrian post open on Sunday, the Teutonia the great Constantinopolitan club, and so on. Prof. Albert Bushnell Hart writes an historical account of "Brother Jonathan's Colonies," and, by making the word "colony" cover everything he pleases, proves that we have always been a colonial power. It is curious to see a professor of history falling into the common error of identifying the little knot of politicians who forced on the war and the cession of the Philippines as "we," i. e., the American people. So far as is known, we have never been consulted at any stage of the game.

—In the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for December 1, "Th. Bentzon" chats to the extent of forty pages about her experiences in eastern Massachusetts in the early summer

of 1897. She was for some weeks the guest of Mrs. James T. Fields at Manchester, and appears to have been accompanied by her and Miss Jewett to such places as might be supposed to be interesting to a student of American literature. Concord and Salem have each several pages, the luxurious country-houses of the "North Shore" are described in an appreciative manner, and glimpses are given of a Harvard commencement, the inauguration of the Shaw monument, and the pure country near Miss Jewett's home on the western border of Maine. Our traveller wonders, naturally enough, what the Puritans of two centuries since would have thought of the modern denizens of Beverly. These, it seems, are so thoroughly Europeanized that, in spite of the carved wood-work from papistical conventicles, which, along with altar-cloths "ravished from convents," adorn their houses, they no sooner are settled therein than they begin preparations for returning to the Old World. Another reason why they are not contented in these parts is the inadequacy of the English language to express their ideas or emotions, and their dependence on French and Italian. Mme. Blanc's errors of fact and spelling are not more numerous than those of previous French writers, but a few of them are amusing enough to deserve mention. Thus, at Salem she is struck by the "gambrel and linto [lean-to] roofs," and the Harvard Glee Club is explained to be "le Club de la Joie." One would have pardoned many worse blunders in return for greater vivacity and originality of view.

—Preparations are being made to celebrate with unusual splendor the semi-millennium of Gutenberg's birth in his native city Mainz in the year 1900. The chief festivities will take place on Sunday, June 24, to be followed on Monday and Tuesday by functions of a less ambitious kind. The centre of the first day's ceremonies will be an academic convention in which some prominent specialist, yet to be selected, will deliver a formal address on Gutenberg and his invention. This will be followed by a banquet. The second day will be marked by an historical parade with special ceremonies before the Gutenberg monument, and the third day will be devoted to festivities of a more popular kind. To mark the significance of the day, the city of Mainz will publish a scientific work on Gutenberg, to which contributions from noted specialists of Germany and other lands are promised. A second and more popular work for general circulation on Gutenberg is also being prepared, which will contain a full description of the condition of education and culture in Mainz in his day. Last and not least, it has been decided to arrange for a typographical exhibition, which will illustrate in all its details the historical development of the art of printing from the days of Gutenberg to our own time, in which exhibit the publications between 1450 and 1470 will be represented in the greatest fulness. A Gutenberg endowment is also planned for the purchase of the incunabula of Mainz and of all the works pertaining to the history of the art of printing for the city library, and in connection therewith a Gutenberg Museum. The Grand Duke of Hesse has accepted the patronage of these festivities; and the selection of an advisory committee from among the noted scholars of Germany and abroad promises to give the Gutenberg semi-millennium international prominence.

HENRY DRUMMOND.

The Life of Henry Drummond. By George Adam Smith. With portrait. Doubleday & McClure Co. 1898.

The choice of Mr. Smith, the well-known expositor of Isaiah, as Drummond's biographer, is amply justified by his completed work. This is not of that kind which latterly has had the best repute—the self-facing kind, which gives the story as much as possible in the words of the person whose biography is written, and as little as possible in the words of the biographer. Mr. Smith has used Drummond's letters but sparingly, and mostly in the form of extracts. It does not appear that Drummond had a talent for letter-writing equal to his average ability. His letters from Central Africa are given here more fully than others, but have more the interest of a remarkable experience than any purely personal. His notes of travel in the New Hebrides are mere jottings without continuity or any literary character. In reporting Drummond's addresses, Mr. Smith has sometimes given his own summaries, and in these we miss the characteristic note. What makes his biography admirable is his fairness in dealing with Drummond's intellectual product and in his loving appreciation of the man. So far as the former is concerned, there is not the least exaggeration, and full scope is given to the adverse criticisms that have been made on Drummond's "Natural Law" and "Ascent of Man." Mr. Smith's own criticism of the former is decidedly adverse. Something more of purely scientific confirmation of Drummond's "struggle for others" in his "Ascent of Man" would not have been difficult to find. As for Drummond the man, there is nothing fulsome in Mr. Smith's appreciation, but it is extremely cordial and well borne out by the facts which are in evidence. We lay down the book with the feeling that nothing that Drummond wrote is so morally inspiring as his character, and especially the simplicity with which he met more than once the temptations of a great and sudden fame.

Drummond was born in Stirling, Scotland, August 17, 1851. From his sixth or seventh till his thirteenth year he went to the Stirling High School, where he was more efficient on the playground than in the class. He was good at cricket and never lost his love of manly sports. We find the mature man rushing off from his revival meetings to see a game of football. He was rather more than less a boy as time went on, seeing that, as a boy, those of his own age did not like him so much as did the older boys and men. His love of boys was one of the most vivid characteristics of his maturity, and his attraction for them was immense. He was not himself a model boy in all respects—was generally late at meals; and the grown man was more interested in boys "without souls and without soap" than in the model kind, and watched the pranks of ragamuffins with an unfailing joy. To go a-fishing was the chief pleasure of his boyhood, and the one that persisted through his life without any compunction as to whether it was right for him.

"to mix his pleasure or his pride
With sorrow of the humblest thing that feels."

From the Stirling High School he went to an academy at Crieff, leaving there in 1866 with prizes for Latin and English and for an essay on "War and Peace," and matriculat-

ng at Edinburgh University, being at the age of fifteen, very small and with a fear of keeping so. He had a passion for chaffering and bargaining, and the Edinburgh auction rooms were the main haunt and region of such recreations. Disliking the classics, he took an erratic course in "Arts." It was Prof. Tait's course in natural philosophy that first woke him up to something more than a perfunctory performance of his duties. Yet in a class of a hundred and fifty he gained only the fourteenth place, and he left the University without a degree, a successful friend addressing him as "two thirds M.A." During his divinity career he came back to the University for botany, chemistry, and geology, and in the last won a class medal—a fact which signified much for his future in more ways than one. During his University course, and for some time after, his interest in mesmerism betrayed a certain openness of mind and his inability to confine himself to beaten tracks.

To enter the Divinity Hall of the Free Church of Scotland he must first be examined by the Presbytery of Stirling, and he got through all right, with his companions, by first hiding the Presbytery's Hebrew Bible in the coal-scuttle and so avoiding an examination in Hebrew. Strangely enough, the Divinity Hall had its chair of natural science, and upon this Drummond attended so cordially that he carried off the first prize. He wrote essays on Creation and Evolution which were significant as showing the preoccupation of his mind with these problems. He got no further than the puerility that evolution is a process to which God assigns its place and directs its operation; but it was something to hail Darwin as "also among the prophets" of Christianity. At this time his scientific studies did not affect his view of the Bible in the least degree. "He stood," says his biographer, "on the ground of the older orthodoxy, with its doctrine of literal inspiration and its blind belief in the absolutely divine character of everything in the Hebrew Scriptures." Nothing could better indicate the length of the road he travelled to reach the 'Ascent of Man' than the fact that he was, as a student, warm in his defence of Henry Rogers's 'Eclipse of Faith,' which opposed revelation to nature and reason as violently as possible. A term in Tübingen was an incident of his theological course; and this, probably, had some effect upon him.

Returning to Scotland, he resolved to postpone his fourth session at New College in order to devote himself to natural science and to regular mission work. Retaining, however, his position as President of the Theological Society, he read before it an essay on "Spiritual Diagnosis." The idea was, that personal contact with individuals is the most important element in religious instruction and persuasion. There was in this essay much forecasting of the methods that subsequently made his own mission work successful to a remarkable degree, and almost immediately the opportunity was afforded him to make a practical trial of his principles. Moody and Sankey came to Scotland and he went and joined himself with them. From Scotland he followed them to Ireland, where they were warned that "all these revivals end worse than they were before they began," and from Ireland to England, where there were tremendous meetings in Manchester, Birmingham, Liverpool, and London. Moody valued him highly and

put him in positions of great responsibility. He developed a remarkable faculty for addressing monster meetings, but it was in the class-room meetings with young men that he made full proof of his ministry. The confessional has never had a more pronounced believer in its efficacy than was he, nor one whose belief was better justified than his by sympathy and tact. Receiving thousands of confessions, he kept their secrets as inviolable as the Roman priest. He could adapt himself to the most various needs. The richest and the poorest found him equally at home, and college men not less, the class that tested most severely his ability to cope with it. His biographer devotes an elaborate chapter to "The Great Mission" of Moody and to Drummond's part in it. He deals frankly with its limitations, but is favorable to it upon the whole. For Drummond it was the greatest danger of his life. He was only twenty-three, and the wonder is that he was not spoiled by his success. On the contrary, he was not hurt at all. His simplicity was as perfect at the end of his thirteen months' campaign as at the beginning, and he went back to New College and took up again the work of a student as naturally as if he had been off on a vacation of the usual kind.

The range of Drummond's thought was never wide. His addresses at this time were afterward developed into some of his most famous publications, such as 'The Greatest Thing in the World.' He made them effective by repeating them and making them better with each repetition. After his return to college, Moody wrote him from America, begging him to come over and help him: "I think you would get a few thousand souls upon these shores if you should come." A sprained ankle and the advice of a sensible woman came timely to his aid. The advice was that an evangelist's career was generally a failure: "Perhaps a few years of enthusiasm and blessing, then carelessness, no study, no spiritual fruits; too often a sad collapse." But what to do with himself?—that was the question, and it was not an easy one to answer. Evidently the ministry, in its average form, had for him slight attraction, but for a few months he associated himself with an elderly minister. An involuntary vacation followed, after which he found that he had "really forgotten all the more important words of his ecclesiastical and theological vocabulary." In 1877 he was appointed for one year to the chair of natural science in New College, Glasgow (his theological school), and held it for nineteen. With his lectureship he soon associated the management of a mission-church in a Glasgow precinct, and gave to this for several years as much care as if it were his only charge.

In 1879 he made a geological expedition to the Rocky Mountains with Prof. Geikie. He had five days in Boston before setting sail for home, and he was invited to dine with Longfellow and Holmes, but he cut away to meet Moody and Sankey at Cleveland—a sad mistake, thinks his biographer. He found Moody "free from superstition," but, on his return to Scotland, took sides with Robertson Smith against his prosecutors, and gradually assimilated the new criticism of the Bible in its length and breadth, proposing to write a tract in which Moses should confront a certain bishop in the Elysian fields with the question, "How dared you say that I did write the Pentateuch?" Yet when Moody re-

turned to Great Britain, Drummond found that his admiration for him had increased a hundred fold, and just before his own death he said: "Moody was the biggest human I ever met."

Meantime, several chapters of 'Natural Law in the Spiritual World' had taken form in his Glasgow mission, and he sent them to one London house after another only to have them "returned with thanks"—an interesting beginning for a book of which 123,000 copies have now been sold in Great Britain, and many more than that number in the United States. Finally he got a publisher, or rather was sought out by one who had seen some of the lectures in the *Clerical World*. By the time it reached the bookseller, the author was steaming down the Red Sea, and it was in the heart of Africa that he woke up about midnight, November 22, 1883, to find himself famous in the *Spectator* and in various letters reporting the astounding success of his book. Mr. Smith subjects it to a criticism that is at once kindly and severe. It was, in fact, something very different from what Drummond himself imagined it to be—a working out inductively of certain laws common to the natural and spiritual world. Instead of being this, it was a piece of brilliant apologetics, endeavoring to bring certain scientific principles to the rescue and defence of the traditional Christian dogmas, some dubious analogies being mistaken for the existence of a single law upon the natural and spiritual plane, while the most striking feature of the book was its comparison of the unconverted soul to dead matter, with an inability, like that, to have any life without a supernatural descent upon it. But the book had qualities that went far to make up for its defects, and its popular success was very great. It left Drummond as simple and unspoiled as his success with Moody and Sankey. It brought him letters of all kinds, ranging from valuable criticism to offers of marriage from America and Australia. All the cranks and faddists hailed him as "one of themselves." This experience was renewed by the 'Ascent of Man,' one correspondent assuring him as "Heaven's Vicegerent" that "the Coming Woman was a Man," while another, a widow, thinks her one boy "promised well, and could be secured for the Kingdom if you would send him an autograph copy of your sweet hymn, 'Are they safe with Him?'"

Africa, which at first seemed to Drummond "one continual picnic," ultimately gave him some deeper apprehension of life's tragic elements, and sowed in his constitution the first seeds of the disease which brought his life to an untimely end, after two years of increasing helplessness and agonizing pain, March 7, 1897. Besides matrimonial opportunities, and the praise of orthodox theologians, hugging the Danaan who brought them such unexpected gifts of scientific confirmation, the book induced the offer of a place on the staff of the Earl of Aberdeen, then Viceroy of Ireland, and later, from Mr. Gladstone, an urgent request for Drummond to stand for a parliamentary election in Lanarkshire. There were other singular requests, but they were all modestly but firmly waived aside.

During the next few years, and for the remainder of his life, Drummond was much engrossed by "the student movement," which extended from Scotland to America and Australia. In Oxford it had the least suc-

cess, though he had good talk with Jowett, "also occasional silences." Liddell he found "very appalling," though "he thawed a little after twenty minutes over tea." He was told that it would be impossible for him to do anything at Harvard, the college being "under Unitarian auspices"; but "the work was really better than anywhere." An incident of his Australian journey was a visit to the New Hebrides, and some attention to the importation of the Kanakas into Queensland. He found the Kanakas themselves much better masters than Australian Englishmen, an omen which our expansionists should attend to, but they will not.

The 'Ascent of Man' was written for a course of Lowell lectures in Boston, but its publication was hurried by the doings of a Philadelphia publisher, who put upon the market a book made up from newspaper reports of the lectures. Drummond "had the law on him," and got his costs, leaving the publisher with his plates and an edition of 10,000 copies on his hands. The book did not please the orthodox party so well as the 'Natural Law,' and it met with much scientific opposition, but, at the same time, it made a host of friends. It certainly did something to correct the exaggeration of natural selection as a selfish and brutal struggle for existence, though it was less original in this respect than Drummond seemed to think, and it is true that he confounded the struggle of species, of which "the struggle for others" is a part, with that of individuals.

When all is said, Drummond was, first, last, and always, an evangelical Christian, much in love with Science and unable to be happy in his religious faith without her approval and consent. His work was essentially that of an apologist, endeavoring to give an appearance of scientific rationality to the doctrines of Christianity as by him apprehended. To go to him for an unbiased search for scientific truth would be a great mistake. With more advanced methods, he was engaged in the same business as that of Hugh Miller—the reconciliation of revelation and science; but he did not feel himself, after his manhood had grown ripe, to be under Miller's necessity for reconciling science with Genesis. We should utterly fail to understand his life if we did not recognize that the Christianity he wished to maintain, as natural and scientific, was the Christianity which he had found efficient for the saving of men's characters from various diseases and defects. His "enthusiasm for humanity," not as an abstract whole but in its individual concreteness, was the consuming passion of his life, and it was marked by a naturalness and simplicity and reality that make us love the man, whatever estimate we may put upon his intellectual methods and results.

TOYNBEE'S DANTE DICTIONARY.

A Dictionary of Proper Names and Notable Matters in the Works of Dante. By Paget Toynbee, M.A. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde. 1898. Pp. x. 616.

This attractive volume, with its beautiful typography and its double-columned pages of generous size, makes a most favorable impression. Mr. Toynbee was already known as a Dante scholar by published work of interest and value, and we were accordingly prepared to expect a useful work of reference

in this Dictionary. It contains the names of persons and places mentioned in all of Dante's works—not merely in the 'Divina Commedia'—as published in the convenient Oxford edition prepared by Dr. E. Moore. It has also a considerable number of articles on "notable matters," "such as the denominations of the several classes of sinners, etc., and of the various heavens, . . . certain personifications and titles, . . . the titles of books quoted by Dante, and so on." These appear, from the alphabetical list in table xxxv. at the end of the volume, to be somewhat over four hundred in number, after a large allowance for insertion of long titles in two or more places. Probably no one will object to the inclusion of such articles; they have a good claim to be classed with the proper names, strictly so called, which Dante has actually mentioned. After a few *addenda et corrigenda* come many useful tables, including genealogical tables of royal and noble families, a chronological table for the strife between Guelphs and Ghibellines, indices and tables intended to facilitate reference to other editions of Dante than that of Dr. Moore, and finally a few plates.

The literature of comment on Dante is so extensive that it is a comparatively easy task to get together a large amount of information and reference for the proper names, and there is not much danger of serious errors as to most matters of fact if one is reasonably careful. Of course, difficulties arise when one wishes to feel certain that all the valuable investigations and studies in small problems and matters of detail have been properly utilized, and no one can hope to avoid an occasional sin of omission. But perhaps the hardest problem is how much to put in and how much to leave out. In this matter we think Mr. Toynbee's judgment has generally been good, though some of his articles we could wish shorter and others longer. Perhaps the ideal way would be to include, either directly or through references, all that can be in any manner helpful in understanding what Dante says, and in case of varying opinions to state at least one view fully and refer to the most authoritative possible statements of other views, and not to lose sight of any possible sources of Dante's knowledge or of any literary or other influences that may have affected him. It is better to err on the side of fulness than to omit something which a modern reader might fairly wish to find.

We should like to see, under *Maometto*, some reference at least to the Mahomet legend as illustrated in Latin and Old French, and, under *Beatrice*, something more than is given in the way of reference (the reference to *Romania* xxiiii., 265, guides only indirectly to Scartazzini), and further, under *Esope*, one would like to see mention of such an article as that of Mall on the mediaeval fable literature and the 'Esope' of Marie de France in the *Zeitschrift für romanische Philologie*, vol. ix. With reference to the last sentences in the article *Esope* it may be said that while Warnke's edition of Marie's fables was doubtless not published in time to be used in this connection, yet Mall had already indicated an Italian translation from the French of Marie. If Mr. Toynbee's understanding of Dante's reference to the fable of the mouse and the frog were correct, it could be made to appear very likely that this Italian version was his source. But is it true that the tormented sinner in the "Inferno" corresponds to the

mouse in the fable? If to the mouse and the frog correspond the two devils that quarrel and are both soured in the pitch, then there is no longer any special reason for thinking of Marie's version.

It might be wished also that the forms of proper names had been considered oftener from the etymological point of view—that, for example, the two forms *Maometto* and *Macometto*—if Dante really used both—had been spoken of, and that the first syllable of *Ciapetta* (Capet) had been explained, as it might easily have been. If the author carries out his plan of treating the whole vocabulary of Dante's Italian works, the etymological side cannot be neglected, yet on this side his competence is somewhat doubtful; the origin *hoc-ille* given for the French word for "yes" under *Lingua Oïl* is not quite reassuring. Mr. Toynbee is perhaps aware of the plan of the Dante Society in this country to prepare a new edition of Blanc's 'Vocabolario Dantesco'; would it be possible for him and the American editor to combine their efforts? Such a vocabulary ought, as he plans, to cover all the works of Dante written in Italian.

A work with which one can hardly avoid comparing this is Dr. Scartazzini's 'Encyclopædia Dantesca'; but as that work is still incomplete, it is well not to go into details. Suffice it to say that a comparison of several articles in the two works does not seriously affect our generally favorable opinion of the English book, and makes even more evident the general good judgment of its author. In some articles we find one book preferable, in others the other, or we find that each supplements the other.

A few remarks on details noticed here and there may be added. P. 2, the foot-note is for a passage in the second column; as one sometimes needs in reading to find the place whence the reference is made, it is better to put the foot-note under the proper column instead of in the middle of the page. P. 17 is wrongly numbered 16. P. 44, since Dante's quotation is not in Latin, and Archemoro is not a familiar name, it would be well to mark the accent as on the e. P. 48, Aristotle: the reference to Par. xxvi., 38, might also be given under Dionisio² and Platone. The English form Aristotle is not included in the Index of English or Anglicized names which differ from the Italian or Latin, and the same is true of Pliny; that index is doubtless not intended to be complete except for names which in English are markedly different from the forms in the main part of the Dictionary. P. 51, if Renier's "critical text" of Dante's Provengal lines in the "Purgatorio" is given at all, attention should be called to the fact that the correctness of this text is still very doubtful at the best, and a reference to the remarks in *Romania* xxvi., 601, would be in order. In the fifth verse is printed *vei*, and in the following verse *rei*. P. 54, why is the "letter addressed by the Signoria of Florence to their allies" given in English? There seems to be some inconsistency as to this matter of translation; on page 50 is given a Provengal passage without translation, and on page 55 are quoted two others, the second of which is translated, while the first is not (though the substance of it is given just before the quotation). P. 156, the Old French line quoted refers, not to the father of Hugh Capet, but to the father of Hugh Capet's mother. P. 199, Dio: in the first paragraph

a reference to *Deus* would be appropriate. *Deus* and *Deo* already have a reference to *Dio*. But in general the matter of cross-references has received very careful attention. P. 386, *Minotauro*: here we find a reference to *Pasifè*, but the accent is doubtless a mistake, as a note under *Pasife* calls attention to the accent on the *i* as shown by the rhyme. P. 443, the reference should be added for the passage in *Benvenuto Cellini*. In the same column, some lines above, if for the form *Pluto* (as representing Latin *Pluto*) reference is made to *Juno*, *Scipio*, *Scorpio* (there is a Latin *Scorpius* as well as *Scorpio*), *Plato*, we might ask to have it noted that Dante never uses a form *Plutone*, while besides these forms in -o he says also *Juno* and *Giuno*, *Scipione*, *scorpione* (not as a proper name), *Platone*, and the ending -one is the one to be expected for a Latin name like *Pluto*. Besides the words mentioned here, *Zeno* occurs as well as *Zenone*. P. 488, the "Livre des Crâtures," as published by Thomas Wright in his "Popular Treatises on Science" with the halting verses here quoted, is not the proper place from which to take (without indication of page or line) the verses of Philippe de Thaïn; they should be quoted from Mall's edition of "Li Cumpoz Philippe de Thaïn," beginning with verse 1387. P. 565, in the second column, line 5, read *Hauréau*, and in the article immediately following it is hardly made clear enough that Jean de Meun's version of the "De Re Militari" is not in the same volume as Jean Priorat's verse rendering. The title of Jean de Meun's translation is "L'Art de Chevalerie." Pp. 605-607 (the list of articles dealing with "notable matters," table xxxv.), contain a few unimportant slips. For instance, the "Liber Alfragani de Aggregatione Scientiae Stellarum" is entered under the letter L in this form, and under the letter A in Italian form (very properly) as *Aggregazione delle Stelle*, *Libro dell'*, but not under its author's name, nor is the other title, "Elementa Astronomica," of his work mentioned in this list. But the heading under which, in the body of the book, we find the desired information is *Alfergano* (there are references from the forms of the title given in this table), and a similar state of things exists for the "Liber Ugutionis de Derivationibus Verborum."

It is in no captious spirit that we have indicated a certain number of flaws in this meritorious work; it is with the feeling that in a dictionary the errors in small matters need to be corrected more carefully than in most other books, and with the hope that in a later edition a close approach to the standard of perfection may be reached.

AS OTHERS SEE US.

The Land of Contrasts: A Briton's View of his American Kin. By James Fullarton Muirhead, author of *Baedeker's Handbooks to Great Britain and the United States*. Boston: Lamson Wolfe & Co. 1898. Pp. viii.-282.

"It may be that a long list of inconsistencies might be made out for any country, just as for any individual; but, so far as my knowledge goes, the United States stands out as preeminently the land of contrasts—the land of stark, staring, and stimulating inconsistency"—Mr. Muirhead says in explanation of his book's title; "a land which may be bounded by the aurora borealis, but which has also an undeniable acquaintance with the flames of the bottomless pit." "It seems to me that I have met in America the nearest

approaches to my ideal of a Bayard *sans peur et sans reproche*, and it is in this same America that I have met the most flagrant examples of the being wittily described as *sans père et sans proche*."

America is the paradise of women—there is no recorded instance even "of justifiable homicide of an American girl in her theatre hat"; but few things provided for a class well able to pay for comfort are more uncomfortable and indecent than the arrangements for ladies on board the sleeping-cars. "Their berths are not segregated at one end of the car, but are scattered above and below those of the male passengers; it is considered *tolerable* that they should lie with the legs of a strange, disrobing man dangling within a foot of their noses." America is the land of comfort and of the worship and power of the dollar; it is the land also of caravansaries which provide "all the discomforts which money can procure," and in which the millionaire stands weekly at the door of the dining-room till the head-waiter shall take notice of him.

"It was an American who said, 'Give us the luxuries and we will do without the necessities,' and there is more truth in this epigram as characteristic of the American point of view than its author intended or would, perhaps, allow. In private life this is seen in the preference shown for diamond ear-rings and Paris toilettes over neat and effective household service. The contrast between the slatternly, unkempt maid-servant who opens the door to you, and the general luxury of the house, is of the most startling, not to say appalling, description. It is not a sufficient answer to say that good servants are not so easily obtained in the United States as in England. This is true; but a slight rearrangement of expenditure would secure much better service than is now seen."

And of course the climate is remarked upon: the climate, "in which, as the Grumbler says in *Town Topics*, winter and fall, spring, summer, and all, combine to make American weather."

It must not be supposed, however, that Mr. Muirhead's pages are one repeated antithesis, or that the dominant note of the book is the critical. "Perhaps more than in any other country that I know of will what the traveller finds there [in the United States] depend on what he brings with him," the author says; and for himself he seems to have brought with him a determination to find a good word for almost everything that he discovers there. At times, even, he reveals a consciousness that the people of the United States have not commonly been supposed to possess the robust passion for amendment which relishes fault-finding. "The Land of Contrasts" is a "record of personal impressions," but the author feels at every step that to set down such a record without offence is a task demanding infinite alertness and tact; and when the impression is disagreeable, he hastens to place beside it an English parallel or an offset. Men, he says, "of a standing and character who would not have done it in England, told me instances of their sharp practices in business with an evident expectation of my admiration for their shrewdness, and with no apparent sense of the slightest moral delinquency"; but he hastens to add: "The reproach comes with a bad grace from the natives of a country which has in its annals the outbreak of the South Sea Bubble, the railway mania of the Hudson era, and the revelations of Mr. Hooley." "The American girl allows her admirers to spend money on her much more freely than the Eng-

lish girl," and "American wives leave their husbands toiling in the sweltering city while they themselves fleet the time in Europe"; but *en revanche*: "The woman of New York and other American cities is often conspicuously superior to her husband in looks, manners, and general intelligence. This has been denied by champions of the American man, but the observation of the writer, whatever it may be worth, would deny the denial." "The small American seems to consider himself the father of the man in a way never contemplated by the poet"; and, "It is a constant source of wonder to the thoughtfully inclined how the American man is evolved from the American boy." But, confessedly, the American man falls from that lofty beginning, and "no one need desire a pleasanter companion." "For myself, I unfeignedly admire the delicacy which leads to a certain parsimony in the use of words like 'perspiration,' 'cleaning one's self,' and so on"; but "there are certain little personal habits, such as the public use of the toothpick, and what Mr. Morley Roberts calls the modern form of *zérâbâs*, which I think often find themselves in better company in America than in England."

In the course, however, of all this diplomatic bowing and scraping, a number of things get themselves said of greater significance for two peoples who find it every day of more and more importance to understand each other. "Our brutal frankness, our brusqueness, and our extreme fondness for calling a spade a spade are often extremely disagreeable to our American cousins"; but

"A native of the British Isles is sometimes apt to be a little nettled when he finds a native of the United States regarding him as a 'foreigner' and talking of him accordingly. An Englishman never means the natives of the United States when he speaks of foreigners," and is "apt, in all good faith and unconsciousness, to criticise American ways to the American with much more freedom than he would criticise French ways to the Frenchman. It is as if he should say, 'You and I are brothers, or at least cousins; we are a much better sort than all those foreign Johnnies; and so there's no harm in my pointing out to you that you're wrong here and ought to change there.' . . . And who is to teach us that Brother Jonathan is able now to give us at least as many hints as we can give him, and that we must realize that the same sauce must be served with both birds?"

Or again:

"The English have reduced to a fine art the practice of a stony passivity, which on its highest plane is not devoid of a certain impressiveness. On ordinary occasions it is apt to excite either the ire or the amusement of the representatives of a more animated race." But "the Englishman seems to have learned, through countless generations, that he can express himself better and more surely in deeds than in words, and has come to distrust in others a fatal fluency of expressiveness which he feels would be exaggerated and even false in himself. . . . It requires an intimate knowledge of both countries to understand that when an Englishman congratulates you on a success by exclaiming, 'Halloo, old chap, I didn't know you had it in you,' he means just as much as your American friend, whose phrase is: 'Bravo, Billy, I always knew you could do something fine.'"

Of the total impression that he has carried away, Mr. Muirhead has a number of pleasant things to set down. Everywhere he found an unusual recognition of the claims of the defenceless, an unusual sense of justice, defined as *le droit du plus faible*. "Those who believe in man's sympathy for man must have faith that some day relative human justice will be done, which will be as far be-

yond the justice of to-day as light is from dark. And it would be hard to say where we are to look for this consummation if not in the United States." Everywhere (except in our "servility" before "such mighty potentates as railway conductors, hotel clerks, and policemen") he found in an unexpected measure the high spirit and self-respect which at its best is one of the prime elements of happiness, and one of the best fruits of the doctrine of equality: "Those may scoff who will at the idea of anything so intangible being allowed to count seriously in the estimation of a nation's or an individual's happiness, but the man of any imagination can surely conceive the stimulus of the constantly abiding sense of a fine national ideal." Everywhere our tourist found "an almost childlike confidence in human ability, and a fearlessness of both the present and the future; a wider realization of human brotherhood than has yet existed; a greater theoretical willingness to judge by the individual than by the class"; and even, in spite of the expression of public sentiment within the past few months, an attitude towards militarism which is superior to that which is common among Englishmen:

"One of the keenest dreads of the best American citizens during a recent wave of jingoism was that of the reflex influence of militarism upon the national character, the transformation of a peace-loving people into a nation of swaggerers ever ready to take offence, prone to create difficulties, eager to shed blood, and taking all sorts of occasions to bring the Christian religion to shame under pretence of vindicating the rights of humanity in some other country." . . . Sympathizers with this view seem much more numerous in the United States than in England."

With Ski and Sledge over Arctic Glaciers. By Sir Martin Conway. New York: M. F. Mansfield & Co. 1898. 8vo, x, 240 pp. Maps and illustrations.

During 1897 Sir Martin Conway, accompanied by Mr. E. J. Garwood, continued the exploration of the interior of Spitsbergen, the first season of which was described, in his former book, "The First Crossing of Spitsbergen." In the present instance the party was completed by the addition of two Norwegians, one of whom proved most serviceable and efficient.

The work of 1896 was chiefly in the middle portion of the principal island near Advent and Sassen Bays, and resulted in determining the existence of an immense number of separate though adjacent glaciers, but no trace of the general "continental" ice-sheet which had been hastily assumed to cover the interior of the land. In 1897 the search for the supposed "inland ice" was continued in the more northern portion of Spitsbergen, which was also proved to bear merely glacial and mountain areas. The only large part of the archipelago which was found to carry an undifferentiated ice-sheet includes New Friesland and North-East Land. The discovery of this fact is the principal geographical result of the campaign of 1897. That it is an important fact is rightly claimed by the explorer, for the following reasons:

"The old theory, that glaciers not only polish but systematically excavate their beds, is practically abandoned. Its supporters naturally considered that the larger the mass of ice the more vigorous would be its excavating action. A great arctic ice sheet was regarded as an extraordinarily powerful excavator. We now know that moving land ice does not so operate upon its bed, but, be-

yond polishing the surface of the rock it covers, has mainly a conservative effect upon it. In the case of a country like the interior of Greenland, wholly buried under ice, the buried land surface undergoes modelling to a very slight degree except around the coast. On the other hand, in the case of a glacial region where mountains rise above the mean level and where rock faces are exposed to the rapid denudation that takes place at all snowy elevations, great developments of surface-formation are going forward. In the case of an ice sheet, the forces acting on a land surface are conservative; in the case of a glacial region, the acting forces are formative. Hence the immense importance of distinguishing between these two types of ice-bearing country. . . . When the great Asiatic plateau was elevated, the drainage ran off along the hollows in the line of the crinkling of the surface coinciding with the strike of the strata. Now, however, by the operation of rivers eating their way back into the plateau at right angles to the strike of the strata, all the great rivers flow at right angles to their original direction. The Indus was originally a stream no bigger than the Swat River, flowing down the edge of the elevated region. It ate its way through the Nanga Parbat range into the depression which goes on to Gilgit, and thus it stole all the waters of the upper Indus of to-day, which in the remote past, I believe, discharged themselves (over a high region since excavated into mountain ranges) into the Kunar River and before that into the Oxus. . . . It is noticeable that, in each case, the river has broken its way through a range in the immediate proximity of its highest peak—that is to say, just where the fall and gathering of snow has been greatest and the denudation most energetic.

"In the case of rivers the eating back process is well recognized and understood. It is not really the work of the river, but it is accomplished by the various forces of atmospheric denudation, by frost and thaw, by avalanches, and so forth, all taking place about the head waters of the stream. I suggest that, under the action of similar forces, glaciers likewise creep back, and that the modelling of snow-mountains out of high plateaus is largely due to this process. According to this theory, though glaciers do not excavate their beds to any great extent, they widen them by carrying away the results of atmospheric and other denudation, and similarly they eat back at their heads.

"The most striking examples I have seen of this are in Garwood Land. There, far in the interior, are a series of cliffs several hundred feet in height. What the origin of these cliffs may have been is immaterial. . . . They form the front of the remains of the old plateau, which has been and is being eaten away. . . . By the melting of the snows above the cliffs and on their ledges, and by the action of frost and thaw, the rocks are being rapidly broken up. The débris falls upon the glaciers below and is carried away. If there were no glaciers in this position, the débris would pile up, a slope would be formed, and would presently reach up to the top of the cliff and protect it from further denudation. The presence of the glaciers below prevents the débris from collecting. The cliff thus continues its existence, and merely moves backward by a steady progress, just as the cliff retreats over which Niagara falls. Where weaker rocks are encountered, or denudation is locally more energetic, the cliff eats backward more rapidly. An embayment is formed which tends both to widen and creep backwards, becoming in time a tributary valley. . . . When two neighboring embayments, reaching back from the lower level into a plateau, send arms to join one another, or meet obliquely, a nunatak is formed" (pp. 209-213).

Sir Martin concludes that the forces of denudation have been longer or more vigorously at work in the western portions of the island, as the development of the topography becomes less and less complete as one proceeds eastward, until parts of the undenuded plateau itself are encountered. The whole north coast bears evidence of a more rigorous climate than districts further south.

The book is attractively and not too profusely illustrated from photographs by Mr. Garwood, and includes an excellent map and sufficient index. There is not too much dwelling upon similar experiences to bore the reader not an arctic enthusiast. The volume is of comfortable size and weight, and in all respects shows a praiseworthy advance on the unwieldy book which preceded it. The author insists on the form of spelling Spitsbergen which has been adopted by the Royal Geographical Society as the only correct one, and it is to be hoped that it may find favor with geographers.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Allen, A. H. *Commercial Organic Analysis.* 2 vols. Philadelphia: P. Blakiston's Son & Co. \$4.50.
 Bushford, Herbert. *Songs from Puget Sea.* San Francisco: Whittaker & Ray Co.
 Boretto, C. E. *Critique of Some Recent Subjunctive Theories.* Cornell Studies in Classical Philology. J. Macmillan.
 Byron, Lord. *The Prisoner of Chillon, and Other Poems.* Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 15c.
 Carlyle, Thomas. *Sartor Resartus.* Illustrated by E. J. Sullivan. London: Bell, New York: Macmillan. \$2.
 Carpenter, Edward. *Angels' Wings: Essays on Art and Life.* London: Sonnenschein; New York: Macmillan. \$2.
 Catherwood, Mrs. Mary H. *Heroes of the Middle West.* The French. Boston: Ginn & Co. 60c.
 Cesareo, Countess Evelyn Martinego. *Cavour.* Macmillan. 75c.
 Cleveland, F. A. *The Growth of Democracy in the United States.* Chicago: Quadrangle Press. \$1.50.
 Coleridge, S. T. *The Ancient Mariner, Kubla Khan, and Christabel.* Macmillan. 25c.
 Conybeare, F. C. *The Dreyfus Case.* London: George Allen; New York: Dodd, Mead & Co. \$1.50.
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 Guthrie, W. D. *Lectures on the Fourteenth Amendment.* Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
 Harding, J. W. *A Conjurer of Phantoms.* F. T. Neely.
 Harrison, Mrs. S. F. *The Forest of Bourg-Marie.* Toronto: G. N. Morang. 65c.
 Hazzard, Prof. J. C. *Eutropius.* American Book Co. 75c.
 Hempl, Prof. George. *The Easiest German Reading.* Boston: Ginn & Co. 45c.
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 Hewlett, Maurice. *Songs and Meditations.* London: Constable; New York: Macmillan. \$1.25.
 Hopwood, Aubrey, and Hicks, Seymour. *The Sleepy King.* Routledge. \$2.
 Huntington, Rev. W. R. *Psyche: A Study of the Soul.* Whittaker. 25c.
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 Jackson, Prof. A. V. W. *Zoroaster, the Prophet of Ancient Iran.* Macmillan.
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 Keary, C. F. *The Journalist.* London: Methuen & Co.; New York: New Amsterdam Book Co. \$1.50.
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 Le Roux, Hugues. *Gens de Poudre. Roman d'Histoire et d'Aventure.* Paris: Calmann Lévy.
 Leupp, F. E. *How to Prepare for a Civil-Service Examination.* New York: Hinds & Noble.
 MacNaughton, Eleanor Le S. *Meadowhurst Children and Other Tales.* Cincinnati, O.: Editor Publishing Co.
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 Nicholl, Edith M. *Observations of a Ranchwoman in New Mexico.* Macmillan. \$1.75.
 Nichols, E. L., and Franklin, W. S. *The Elements of Physics, Vol. I, Mechanics and Heat.* Macmillan. \$1.50.

Palmer, Prof. Arthur. <i>P. Ovidi Nasonis Heroides. With the Greek Translation of Planudes.</i> Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde.	London: A. & C. Black; New York: Macmillan. \$2.50.
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Protestant Episcopal Almanac. 1899. Whittaker. 25c.	Stuckey, J. H., and Hoffmann, Ralph. <i>Bird World. A Book for Children.</i> Boston: Ginn & Co. 70c.
Rocca, Gen. Count Enrico della. <i>The Autobiography of a Veteran, 1807-1893.</i> Macmillan.	St. Nicholas. 1898. 2 vols. Century Co.
Schloss, David F. <i>Methods of Industrial Remuneration.</i> 3d ed. London: Williams & Norgate; New York: Putnam's. \$2.50.	Stoddard, G. W. <i>A Cruise under the Crescent.</i> Rand McNally & Co.
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The Century. May-Oct. 1898. Century Co.	Trask, Katrina. <i>Under King Constantine.</i> 5th ed. Putnam's. \$1.
Tranbe, J. <i>Physico-Chemical Methods.</i> Philadelphia: P. Blakiston's Son & Co. \$1.50.	Trübner, K., and Meutz, F. <i>Minerva: Jahrbuch der Gelehrten Welt, 1898-1899.</i> Strassburg: Trübner; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
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